The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 30, 1887.

The Week.

THE investigations made in Cincinnati respecting the failure of the Fidelity National Bank disclose the most graceless and brazen frauds that have come to light since James D. Fish gutted the Marine Bank in this city. Every variety of swindling was resorted to. Money was taken out of the bank to the amount of $1,000,000, and nothing put in its place but memorandum slips of paper, showing who had taken it. Bank stock was issued that was not authorized by law, and was sold or hypothecated for money to be used in the "wheat deal" at Chicago. False statements of the bank's condition were made and forwarded to Washington, under oath, of course. Such an accumulation of penalties under the National Banking Law has seldom been brought together. When we recall these penalties and the exemplary severity with which they are commonly enforced, we are moved to wonder why Harper, Baldwin, and Hopkins are not now in Canada instead of waiting for the action of the Grand Jury in Cincinnati. The only palliation discovered by their friends up to this time is, that the Chicago Board of Trade is to blame for altering its rules and making a greater quantity of wheat "regular" than they expected to be obliged to take. In other words, they went to Chicago not to corner wheat, but to corner storage room. What they ought to have bought was warehouses, not No. 2 spring. This is interesting, but it will not go far with a jury.

We have felt sure for some days past that it would be discovered by somebody that President Cleveland was in some manner to blame for the recent financial troubles. Our readers may remember that a hardware house in this city, which failed last year, ascribed their downfall to his nomination. As soon, they said, as his nomination began to be talked of even, the demand for steel springs began to fall off. People said they should use only very few steel springs until they saw whether he would run for the Presidency. When he was actually elected, of course, they ceased buying steel springs altogether, and down came the house. Now comes Senator Sherman and says: "The recent business troubles in Ohio are the possible forerunners of financial depression, for which he blames the inefficiency of President Cleveland's Administration." We quote this from a *Tribune* "special." What other cause could there be? When he came into power the speculators got together and said, "Now is the time for corners in wheat and coffee," and got permission from the Administration to get up one on a large scale in each article. At the same time Hopkins and Harper determined, if he approved, to rob the Fidelity Bank, and telegraphed to Washington to know whether any notice would be taken of a considerable bank robbery in connection with the corners. On receiving the laconic answer that "they were to go ahead," they plunged into crime, with the result we now witness.

A gallant effort has been made by Mr. Sherman, in an interview with a reporter of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, to reconcile his Nashville and Springfield speeches. He maintains that there was no inconsistency between them, because his Springfield speech was an "historical statement," while his Nashville speech was "made to persuade the people of the South that their material interests would be promoted by the policy of the Republican party." In other words, he was telling the Springfield people what a bad lot the Southerners were, but he was telling the Nashville people that there was money in the "Republican policy." He will not retract either speech now, because he says he always governs his conduct simply by "the rule of right," and cares little for "the rule of policy." In fact, he is apparently one of the simple sort known as "Plutarch's men."

It turns out that at the very time when Adjt.-Gen. Drum was organizing his scheme for a general return of the rebel flags, representatives of an Ohio and a Louisiana regiment were in correspondence with reference to the return of one banner. On the 28th of July, 1864, the Forty-sixth Ohio captured the flag of the Thirtieth Louisiana in front of Atlanta, and it was deposited in the Ohio State-house. The survivors of the Ohio regiment are to hold a reunion in August, and some time ago they decided to return the flag, provided the State authorities would surrender it to them. Accordingly a letter was sent to the Adjutant-General of Louisiana asking his assistance in reaching members of the regiment from that State, as it was desired to have some of them present at the reunion. In due time a committee of the Louisianians acknowledged the receipt of the communication, returned cordial thanks for the offer, and expressed the hope that the Ohio State authorities would allow the purpose to be carried out, as "such acts, accepted in the spirit of conciliation and good-fellowship in which they are meant, have done and are doing much to bring about that era of fraternity which all good citizens desire to see entertained by the people of all parts of our country." This last letter was written early in June, just before the recent outbreak on the flag question, and whether Gov. Foraker will now consent to "recognize the success of the rebellion" by giving his consent to the removal of the colors from the State-house, remains to be seen.

The death of Craig Tolliver of Rowan County, Kentucky, after having defied the Sheriff and the courts for many years, and taken some part in the murder of about thirty men, closes a very curious episode in social life. His final freak in getting himself elected justice of the peace, and then issuing warrants for his enemies, and inflicting capital punishment on them as soon as they were arrested, is surely one of the most grotesque incidents of Western politics. But Tolliver was a product of the period before the war, and of a kind of civilization which has been disappearing since the war. He could not have existed in any community which had got out of the barbarous stage, in which physical courage is considered by far the highest of virtues, and in fact a sufficient substitute for most others.

Attention has been directed lately to the increasing amount of silver certificates outstanding, about $139,000,000 at the present time, and the silver men have improved the occasion to say that all the predictions of disaster to result from continued silver coinage have been falsified, since no disaster whatever has resulted. It is not considered a disaster to have accumulated nearly $80,000,000 of unused silver dollars over and above the amount of certificates outstanding; but the fact that it is not such must be attributed to the wealth of the country, to its ability to "carry" the stuff without feeling the burden. The carrying capacity of the country is much greater than any strain that has been put upon it yet. Nobody anticipated, when the Silver-Coinage Act was passed, that national-bank notes to the amount of more than $100,000,000 would be speedily retired through the payment of the public debt, and that another large vacuum in the circulation would be made by the cancellation of the one and two-dollar greenbacks. The space filled by both these disappearing elements has been taken principally by silver certificates, these being the only kind of new paper circulation of denominations under $20 available. For amounts of $20 and over, gold certificates have been equally available with silver, and have been taken out to answer the purpose of settling bank balances and for the larger requirements of commerce.

It must be admitted that the effects of the Silver Coinage Act, where so many unknown elements entered into the problem, were of a kind that could not be accurately foretold. If the fears of its opponents have not been realized, those of the bimetallists have been likewise falsified. The latter predicted dire calamities to the civilized world if gold should remain the single standard of value. Gold has remained the single standard both in Europe and in the United States. Not one step has been taken towards bimetallism in any country, nor is there now the smallest probability that any will be taken. Yet commerce and society have advanced with no less prosperous strides since 1873, when the German demonetization, which was for all practical purposes the European demonetization, of silver took place. So far as predictions go, there is nothing to be claimed in favor of the bimetallists, or of the silver men, pure and simple, who have not ranged themselves with the bimetallists. Some things, however, have been proved by the course of events. One is, that any silver coined under our law not wanted for trade purposes will pile itself up in the Treasury a dead weight, constituting an abstraction of so much capi-

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tal from the business of the country. Another is, that any vacuum happening in the circulation by reason of the withdrawal of older forms of currency, or through the settlement and cultivation of new territory, or in any other way, will be filled for the most part by silver certificates. Still another, and the most important of all, is, that an excess of silver coinage does not change the standard of value from gold to silver, has not yet done so, and does not show any sign that it will do so hereafter.

A well-known banking firm in Wall Street have issued a circular recommending the policy of bond purchases by the Treasury as the most economical means of getting rid of the surplus, and relieving any stringency in the money market caused by the excess of revenue over current expenditures. The circular assumes, and rightly, too, that if a 4½ per cent. bond, having still four and a quarter years to run, is bought, there is a saving of 6 per cent. to the Government, even though a premium of 13⅛ per cent. is paid for it. The same rule holds good as to the 4 per cents, which have twenty years to run. There is a much greater saving in that case. In fact, the Government could afford to pay a much higher premium than the 4's sell for and still save money by the operation, and this for the reason that the Government, unlike an individual, has no other use for its surplus money than to pay its debts. A business man who has a debt falling due some years hence, can invest his funds in many ways so as to make interest equal to the interest he must pay. The Government can do nothing of the kind. Its total liability on a 4 per cent. bond is the par value of the bond plus 4 per cent. for twenty years, *i. e.*, 80 per cent. Each $100 of that class of indebtedness calls for $180. This is the bill that the taxpayers have to foot, and the question is whether they had best foot it now by paying say $130, or let it drag along and pay $180 eventually. This raises the question whether the interest money (the $80) will "fructify in the pockets of the people" during the twenty years, if left there instead of being taken in the form of taxes to cancel the debt in advance of its maturity. The opinion of the wisest thinkers on this subject is that the best and surest fructification of interest on the public debt is attained by paying the principal as soon as practicable, and stopping the interest altogether.

The *Financial Chronicle*, on the other hand, holds that although the purchase of bonds at a premium is authorized by law, and therefore the Secretary of the Treasury would be protected in buying "at rates not exceeding that of the current market," yet the law was passed at a time and under circumstances so different from the present that it would be imprudent for the Secretary to resort to that power except under very great stress; and that it will be much wiser to wait until Congress shall have had opportunity to pronounce upon the question in the light of existing facts, using meanwhile other and undoubted means for getting rid of the surplus—as, for instance, paying interest in advance for a whole year if need be. We think that the *Chronicle's* advice is most judicious. It would be highly inexpedient, in a political sense, to buy bonds at a premium in the short interval that remains before the meeting of Congress. It is impossible to say what view the public would take of such purchases. It is certain that if the Secretary were to appear in the market as a buyer, the premium would advance. The bond market is virtually cornered. The amount outstanding is a fixed quantity. Any large and regular buyer whose wants were known would find the price rising upon him at a rate quite irrespective of the value of money. The article would acquire a scarcity value, and the charge would be made that the Government's policy had been adopted to put money into the pockets of the bondholders and bond brokers—a charge that it would be as impossible to refute as it is to prove a negative. We should therefore concur decidedly with the *Chronicle* in the opinion that, pending the decision of Congress, almost any course would be preferable to bond purchases by the Treasury.

The bricklayers' strike in Chicago, which was simply a continuation or extension of the carpenters' and hod-carriers' strike, and began on the 30th of April, has proved a dead failure, and been declared "off." The master-masons met the strike by the formation of a union of their own, and the publication of a set of "principles" to which all men employed by them hereafter would have to be bound, and which would have the effect of freeing them from the interference of the trades-union in the management of their business. The members of the Union have not given in their adhesion to the principles, but they have formally abandoned the strike and left every man free to do as he pleases about obtaining work. It is calculated that the three strikes which have in succession lasted since April 4, have caused a loss in wages of nearly $2,500,000, besides the transfer of much capital from Chicago to other cities.

We presume it would be no exaggeration to put down the total loss to laborers alone caused by the strikes of the last year and a half in various parts of the country at $10,000,000. They were for the most part due to the extravagant expectations excited among workingmen all over the country by the appearance of Powderly on the scene with his organization of "Knights." The organization had been in existence several years, but it received a sudden extension in 1885, and obtained great publicity by the promise it seemed to hold out to the laboring classes of a new weapon in the shape of a "general strike"—that is, a strike of all trades, or of several, in sympathy with each one. This literally made the Master Workman and the Walking Delegates drunk with the pride of power. It seemed to them as if they had only to snap their fingers to bring the whole community to its knees by a general suspension of trade and traffic. Many of the clergy and professors, too, in various parts of the country were panic-stricken, and began to shout to "Society" and the capitalists that their hour had come, and that they must run for shelter. We then had the Southwestern railroad strike, and the street-railroad strikes, the 'longshoremen's and coalheavers' strikes in rapid succession in and around this city. They all ended in the same way — that is, in immense loss to all concerned. But probably the Powderly bubble could not have been pricked at less cost. Nothing is more certain than that no community can have in its midst a great mass of ignorance and credulity without paying for it smartly in cash.

It is not clear just how much the "revolution" which has been brought about in the management of District Assembly 49 will change the methods of that curious body of Labor. Quinn, the leader in the Old Dominion and other strikes, has been deposed, and Dunn, the leader in the silversmiths' strike, reigns in his stead. Both men are about as unworthy specimens of the free American workingman as could be found anywhere. Dunn is by trade an engineer, but he has done no labor with his hands since he became an active Knight and an arbitrator. He confessed upon the witness stand, in the silversmith inquiry, that it was his custom to lie freely in the cause of Labor, and to advise every other Knight to do the same. His theory of the boycott, also frankly avowed, was to use it as a means of levying blackmail upon employers. He and Quinn were unable to get along together because of the unwillingness of each to yield to the other's orders. It is said by many that Quinn and his associates have made free use of the Assembly's funds, and if Dunn's triumph enables the truth upon this point to be revealed, there will be one good result of his election.

The Anti-Poverty Society has now got so far on in its work of abolishing poverty that it takes up two collections at its weekly meetings. When the baskets had been passed on Sunday night and the receipts counted, Mr. George announced that there was not enough to pay "current expenses," and the baskets were sent through the audience again. Whether "current expenses" were satisfied at the second round, we are not informed. As the Society advances in its work, we presume the number of collections will increase until each poverty abolisher is asked to empty his pockets as he leaves the hall. While this process may abolish the poverty of those who are incurring the "current expenses," it is difficult to see how the humble members of the Society, who have paid their initiatory dollar as the cost of having their poverty removed, are getting ahead. Their enthusiasm at the weekly meetings is said to be as tremendous as ever, but the constantly growing number of collections must inevitably damp it sooner or later.

"Poor old Uncle Jake Sharp," as he called himself in one of his numerous sojourns at Al-

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bany, is in a querulous state in reference to his imprisonment in Ludlow Street Jail, and has written a letter to the newspapers on the subject. It is certainly a time calling for the exercise of philosophy, and it happens that philosophy supplies an example and a precept which fit the case of any innocent man unjustly locked up in prison. When Socrates was incarcerated on false charges, his friends urged him to break jail and clear out, but the old man gently chided them for their advice, and improved the occasion to give a discourse on the theory and uses of government. When we entered into the social state, he said, we agreed to obey the laws. Disobedience of the laws is a bad thing. Whether it is a bad thing for me to be in jail, or even to drink hemlock, are matters of doubt and uncertainty, but it is no matter of doubt and uncertainty that jail-breaking is wrong. Shall we do what we know to be wrong in order to avoid something that we have no positive opinion about, one way or the other? There are many other things that Mr. Sharp may find in this case of false imprisonment that may strengthen an innocent man even while riding in the Sheriff's carriage to and from Ludlow Street.

As Sharp's testimony before the Senate Committee has now been admitted as evidence, it is not improper to recall some of the answers which he made to the repeated attempts of Mr. Conkling and others to ascertain what he did with his bonds and money. The total amount which he said he "diffused generally" during the period in question was $2,500,000 in bonds and $500,000 in money. He was unable to remember what he did with $239,000 worth of bonds and $875,000 in money, derived mainly from the sale of bonds. He had made no entries upon the stubs of his check-book for twenty years. He had drawn checks for $74,000, $155,000, $260,000, $65,000, and other such sums, all in one day, and he was totally unable to remember to whom they were made payable. When Mr. Conkling asked, "You diffuse your checks generally?" Sharp replied, "Yes, that is the true statement of the way that I have done this thing for years and years." When Mr. Conkling asked to whom he diffused them, Sharp's answer was, "I don't know; look at that check-book," the book in question consisting entirely of blank stubs. When Mr. Conkling said, "I don't believe I shall ever know what you did with the checks," Sharp replied, "I don't believe you ever will either." At another time he said, "It seems to me that this Committee is entirely out of its sphere in trying to see whether the Aldermen were bribed." In regard to Moloney, when he was asked if he knew him, Sharp replied, in answer to a series of questions, "Billy Moloney? Yes, I know him. I've known him for years. I have met him at the office of Scribner & Bright. I can't say how many times. I don't know how he came or how he went. I may have seen him there ten times."

Governor Hill's disposal of the remainder of the bills left in his hands is, like his action in most things, a mixture of bad and good. His approval of the Subway Bill, we think, gives general satisfaction, as its failure would have postponed indefinitely the putting of the wires under ground, and would have involved the city in protracted litigation. The bill is the one agreed on by all parties as suitable and safe early in the spring, except that the Comptroller and Commissioner of Public Works have been excluded from the Commission, and only the Mayor left on it to represent the city. This is very unfortunate, but what better could one expect from such a body as the late Legislature? and what likelihood was there of doing any better next year? As long as we are under Albany rule, most city improvements will have to be made with unsatisfactory machinery. It is to be presumed that the work of the Commission will now be promptly done, and Mayor Hewitt has the power, at all events, of sounding the alarm if anything goes wrong.

The Governor has made the bicyclists happy by signing their bill forbidding the Park Commission to discriminate against them, and they offer to minimize the evil by coöperating with the Commission in drawing up new rules. Unhappily, however, the public did not intend and does not wish the bicyclists, respectable as they may be, to take a share in the government of the parks, which is apparently what they think this Bill enables them to do. It wishes park rules to be drawn by Park Commissioners, and to be such as commend themselves to the judgment, not of wheelmen, but of municipal officers. The force of this objection to this legislation we think the wheelmen do not yet fully appreciate. The Bill is another blow struck at municipal independence by a body of incompetent and corrupt country legislators, and all we get in compensation for it is the admission of a few score of young men on wheels to the east drive. The vetoing of the zoölogical garden scheme is a public service; that of the National Guard parade-ground was a foregone conclusion. Gov. Hill has signed the bill giving the taxes back to the insurance companies, but without giving reasons, and his silence, we think, was, on the whole, judicious. The bill is one of those things which may possibly be justifiable, but which would take enormous talent and endless pains to justify.

The Governor has, in his memorandum attached to the Five-Gallon Bill, furnished a number of points which will be very useful to those who draft anti-liquor legislation next winter, and we trust they will make a note of them and act on them, whether their aim be to put him in "a hole" or restrict the liquor traffic. He advocates local option in its broadest sense, with regard both to the sale of liquors in bulk and at retail; the payment of all liquor-license fees or taxes into the local treasuries; the fixing of the minimum license fee by the Legislature, and the maximum by the local authorities. It does not appear from this why he objected to the High-License Bill, because if the Legislature is competent to fix the minimum, it is competent to fix the maximum, or if the judgment of the local authorities is good enough for one, it is good enough for the other. One of his objections to the Crosby bill was that it made the fee higher for some places than for others. But why not, if the Legislature knows what the lowest fee ought to be for all places?

The persistence of the belief that anybody can draw as a lecturer in this country was curiously illustrated by the attempt of the English "Claimant" to make a living on the platform a year or two ago. The man, Tanner, who fasted forty days tried it, with no better success. Sergeant Ballantyne tried it also, and was astounded by the smallness of his audiences, and intimated freely that somebody had lied to him grossly about the American appetite for this species of entertainment. Some of the noted robbers of the West have also figured on the platform with more or less attractiveness. It is, in fact, a great resource of everybody who has for any reason become notorious and is "down on his luck." The latest candidate for public attention in this field is Cutting, the Texan editor whom the Mexicans locked up. He is here, it is said, ready to lecture, with stereoptical views of his "dungeon." If he makes money, he is to go back to El Paso, start his paper again, and make the Mexicans' howl. The dungeon appears to be chiefly remarkable for having contained Cutting for two months. One view will hardly illustrate it sufficiently, and we presume the pictures will show Cutting in it at various periods of the day.

Nothing probably does so much to damage the Irish cause abroad as the way its defenders thrust it on the attention of indifferent bystanders. Nothing can be more ill-advised and better calculated to excite hostility and disgust than attempts to compel Americans to take sides in it, whether they wish to or not, on their own soil. Nothing has done more to alienate or repel public sympathy with Irish wrongs in this country. It is as ridiculous to insist on people's sympathizing with you as to insist on their loving you. It was, therefore, most injudicious, as well as absurd, for some Irishmen in this city to raise a row in 1883 because the Brooklyn Bridge was opened on the Queen's birthday. It was absurd, too, besides being criminal, to get up a riot in Boston because Englishmen were allowed to hire Faneuil Hall to celebrate the Queen's jubilee. Such things make the very name of everything Irish, including home rule, detestable in the ears of tens of thousands of Americans. How can people expect to be considered rational and fit for any kind of rule who expect all mankind to hate Queen Victoria and the British nation because a large body of Irishmen hate them? Of course every American who is bothered in this way, asks himself what have Irishmen done for him that he should groan over their woes or help to do their cursing. It seems sometimes as if there was nothing the Irish cause needed so much on this side of the water as common sense, because from common sense comes a reasonable regard for the comfort and convenience of one's neighbors.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 22, to TUESDAY, June 28, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has accepted the dedication to him of the eulogy on Henry Ward Beecher by the Rev. Dr. Parker of London. In his letter the President wrote of Mr. Beecher as "my loved and honored friend."

Near Bluff City, Utah, a party of five Navajo Indians recently went to the trading post of A. M. Barton and murdered him with great cruelty. For six months a band of desperadoes near Albuquerque, N. M., have murdered police officers, wrecked trains, broken into houses, and stolen horses; and the citizens have organized a vigilance committee to rid the country of them.

Gen. Miles sent a despatch from San Carlos, Ariz., June 26, saying that the hostile Apaches had been driven back to the reservation, that they had surrendered, and that he had instituted an investigation, and detailed a general court-martial for the trial of the three guilty of military offences, "thus ending the present disturbances."

Up to June 28 forty-three cases of yellow fever had been reported at Key West, Fla., and nineteen patients had died.

Five thousand acres of grain and garden crops have been destroyed by grasshoppers near Pernam, Minn.

The steel stern-post for the United States cruiser *Charleston* was successfully cast at San Francisco June 22. It is twenty-two feet long on the keel with an upright of twenty feet, and weighs more than 15,000 pounds.

The transpacific steamship line from Vancouver has caused a reduction in fares from San Francisco to Hong-Kong and Yokohama to $200. Round trip passage is sold for $350.

Gov. Hill of this State has signed a bill prohibiting the sale of liquors in quantities of five gallons or upwards in those cities, towns, or villages wherein the local authorities do not grant a single retail license, and a bill requiring the licensing and registering of physicians, and he has vetoed a bill to tax "bucket-shops."

The General Term of the Supreme Court in New York has rendered a decision reversing the recent decision of a lower court, whereby it was declared unlawful for hotel-keepers in this city to serve wine to their guests on Sunday.

At a public meeting at Rochester, N. Y., June 27, it was resolved to have the city rid of a number of Italians who live in such squalor as to endanger the public health.

Foreign laborers employed by building contractors at Rochester struck June 27, and became so riotous that one was fatally wounded by the police. On June 28, the three large cotton mills at Manville, R. I., were shut down on account of a strike by the weavers, and 2,000 persons were thrown out of employment.

In the trial of Jacob Sharp in this city for bribing Aldermen in 1884 to grant him the Broadway Railroad franchise, the time was consumed until Monday by the prosecution; then the defence was begun. Because of a suspicion that the prisoner might try to make his escape, he has been confined in jail.

The failure of the Fidelity Bank at Cincinnati, in consequence of the recent wheat panic in Chicago, led to the discovery that its business was improperly conducted. Its officers have been arrested, charged with conspiracy to defraud and with transmitting to the Comptroller of the Currency a false and fraudulent report of the bank's condition.

Mr. John R. Buchtel, the founder of the college at Akron, O., that bears his name, has given $175,000 to its endowment fund. He had previously given $125,000.

The last Indiana Legislature made an appropriation to enclose the Tippecanoe battle-ground, where the Prophet and his Indian horde were defeated by Gen. William H. Harrison in 1811, and the Commissioners of Tippecanoe County have ordered the work to be done under their supervision.

The Bricklayers' Union of Chicago on June 23 withdrew the demand for a Saturday pay-day, and declared the long strike ended. As a result of this fruitless strike, miners were idle in Pennsylvania, sawmills and their operatives in Michigan and Wisconsin, and thousands of men thrown out of work in the stone quarries; the pressed-brick trade was affected all over the United States; thousands of dollars were lost to the railroad companies, and every branch of manufacture identified in any way with the building trades suffered directly. An estimate of the loss in wages to striking and locked-out employees in the vicinity of Chicago is $2,500,000.

The Rev. Dr. McGlynn, the deposed priest who is lecturing for the advancement of the doctrine of the communal ownership of land, declared at Chicago, June 27, that he intended to join the Knights of Labor, and to give what time he could to the building up of that organization.

On July 26 a fire in the stockyards at Chicago caused a loss of more than $800,000, and many hogs were burned to death.

The whole town of Marshfield, Wis., was burned June 27; 2,000 people were made homeless, and the loss of property was not less than $3,000,000. A locomotive spark started the fire in a lumber-yard. A large part of the mining town of Hurley, Wis., was burned June 28. The loss is about $80,000.

A boat that was going to rescue the passengers of the steamer *Champlain*, which was burned off Charlevoix, Mich., a few days ago, met a woman swimming shoreward with a child which she held, by its clothing in her teeth. When the captain of the rescuing boat offered to take her on board she told him to hurry to the others, as she could take care of herself. She reached the shore in safety, and when another of the shipwrecked passengers was taken from the boat in an almost frozen condition, she took off her flannel underskirt and wrapped it around him. Her name is Miss Mary Wakefield, and she lives at Charlevoix.

Charles W. Owens, Isaiah Waters, John Brandau, John B. Sanner, and William J. Byrne, in Baltimore, were sentenced June 27, each to two years' imprisonment, and James H. Hamlin to two years in jail and to pay a fine of $1,000, having been convicted of fraud in the last municipal election. They were clerks and judges of election.

Natural gas has been discovered at Fort Scott, Kan., which flows in sufficient volume for use as fuel in manufacturing establishments. The recent discovery of gas at Paola, Kan., was made the occasion of a popular celebration on June 28.

While boring an artesian well near Fort Worth, Tex., June 24, men struck petroleum at a depth of 240 feet.

A severe wind storm in Gregg County, Tex., on Sunday night killed five men, one woman, and two children, and did much damage to property.

At Morehead, Rowan County, Kentucky, May 22, a sheriff's posse shot to death the outlaw and murderer, Craig Tolliver, and his two brothers, Jay and Budd Tolliver. Three weeks ago Tolliver, who had had himself elected a justice of the peace, issued warrants for two brotners, W. H. and John B. Logan, members of the opposing faction, placed the young men under arrest, and had them shot. These were the last of the long series of murders that were caused by the "feud," and there had for three years been an intermittent war in Rowan County. When the posse surrounded the town a battle ensued, but only one of the attacking party was injured.

The Knights of Labor have approved the new Constitution which was submitted to the subordinate assemblies by the general officers. One new provision is, that "no local or other assembly or member shall directly or indirectly give, sell, or have any ale, beer, or intoxicating liquors of any kind, at any meeting, party, sociable, ball, picnic, or entertainment whatever appertaining to the order." Any member found guilty of violating this clause shall be suspended not less than six months, or expelled. The section on coöperation provides for the creation and disbursement of a fund to aid coöperative enterprises. Each local assembly is required to collect and deposit not less than two cents per month for every member in good standing. The money is to be invested by the Coöperative Board, and profits are to be divided equally between the General Assembly, the coöperative fund, and the workmen who create the profit.

Caveats have been filed at Washington on an instrument whereby it is said a manuscript can be duplicated instantaneously several hundred miles away. It is called the graphophone, and a graphophone company has been organized under the laws of West Virginia.

This has been commencement week at most of the foremost colleges, and there have been a number of semi-centennial celebrations—one of the graduating class of '37 at Yale, another of the Alpha Delta Phi Fraternity at Amherst, and another of the founding of the University of Michigan. Six young women were graduated from the Harvard Annex, which during the year has had seventy-five students.

In the Eastern Yacht Club regatta, off Marblehead, Mass., June 22, the *Mayflower* crossed the line nearly seventeen minutes ahead of the *Galatea*.

The Yale University crew won the race at New London, Conn., June 24, over the University of Pennsylvania crew by four lengths. Harvard won the boat-race at New London June 27, over Columbia. Time—Harvard 20:15, Columbia 20:25.

The Boston *Daily Advertiser* has been sold. Under the new ownership it will remain a Republican and protectionist paper.

Prof. V. Botta of this city has received from the King of Italy, in recognition of his late publication, 'An Introduction to the Study of Dante,' a copy of the magnificent edition of the 'Divina Commedia' which the King recently had printed for private circulation. Besides the text of the poem, the edition contains a commentary of the fifteenth century in Latin, illustrating almost every verse of the 'Divine Comedy,' which had remained a manuscript almost unknown among the treasures of the Royal Library in Turin.

Among the notable persons who died during the week were Mrs. Sarah Sophia Cowen, one of the organizers of the Soldiers' Aid Society of Hartford, June 24; Freeman Clark of Rochester, a business man of wide influence, who had been a member of Congress and was Comptroller of the Currency under President Lincoln, June 24; Gen. James Speed of Kentucky, who was Lincoln's Attorney-General, June 25.

FOREIGN.

Jubilee festivities have not yet ended in London, and will not for a week or more. The Queen is entertaining guests at Windsor. United States Consul-General Waller presided at a Jubilee dinner given by the foreign consuls, at which 200 persons were present, including representatives of forty nations.

Prince Albert Victor and Prince George of Wales, who went to Dublin June 27 to attend the Jubilee celebration there, were received

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with enthusiasm by one part of the population and with hisses by the other part.

The Jubilee yacht race around Great Britain was won by the *Genesta*, which sailed the distance in 12 days 16 hours and 55 minutes, arriving June 27. On June 25 the yachts *Thistle*, which will race for the *America's* cup, and *Irex* started from Rothesay on a fifty-mile race, and the *Thistle* won, covering the course in 4 hours 6 minutes and 45 seconds. The time of the *Irex* was 4 hours 18 minutes and 45 seconds. On June 27 another race was sailed by the same yachts over the Northern Yacht Club course, and the *Thistle* again won, covering the course in 4 hours 9 minutes and 40 seconds, the *Irex's* time being 4 hours 17 minutes and 46 seconds.

Among the peers to be created in the distribution of Jubilee honors, the following have been announced: Sir John St. Aubyn, a Liberal Unionist, member of Parliament for the St. Ives Division of Cornwall; Mr. Henry William Eaton, a Conservative, member of Parliament for Coventry; and Mr. Edward Fellowes, a contributor to the Conservative electoral fund, and formerly member of Parliament for Huntingdon. Baron Londesborough will be made an earl. The Earl of Strathmore, now a Scotch representative peer, and Viscount Galway, an Irish peer, will be made peers of the United Kingdom. Baronetcies will be conferred upon thirteen persons, including Sir Algernon Borthwick, editor and proprietor of the London *Morning Post*; Mr. Moon, Chairman of the London and Northwestern Railway; and Mr. William Pearce, the shipbuilder, member of Parliament for Govan. Thirty-three persons will be made knights, and a long list of decorations conferred on the royal visitors.

Mr. Smith, the Government leader, announced in the House of Commons on June 27 that the Government intended to proceed with the Crimes Bill until it passed the report stage. Mr. Morley moved that the duration of the act be limited to three years. It was the first time, he pointed out, that any Government had the shameful courage to propose perpetual coercion. In any exceptional mutilation of civil rights, particularly in so grave and serious a mutilation as this bill contemplated, the Government ought to be compelled from time to time to examine whether the circumstances still justified the existence of such exceptional legislation. This was the first Government that had cast to the winds the old fashioned regard for the liberty of the subject, and the doctrine that exceptional legislation should not last one day longer than circumstances demanded. Mr. Gladstone urged that the special character of the bill was a reason for limiting its duration. Its enactment as a permanent measure would aggravate existing evils, and intensify that alienation and estrangement from the law wherein lay the fundamental evil of Ireland's social condition. But Mr. Morley's amendment was rejected by a vote of 180 to 119.

June 28 Mr. Smith announced in the House of Commons that on June 30 he would move that at seven o'clock on the evening of July 4 the remaining resolutions on the report stage of the Coercion Bill be put seriatim without debate.

Sir George O. Trevelyan published a letter June 28 about the statement recently made by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, that the only obstacle to a reunion in the Liberal party was the refusal of the Gladstonians to make any concessions in their Irish programme. He pointed out that the Gladstonians have made concessions on all the disputed points, and therefore interpose no obstacle to a reunion of the party. "The Liberal-Unionists," he concludes, "will be unable to destroy the Liberals, but a reunion of the Liberal party would serve to moderate its policy."

The Irish National League are preparing to meet coercion by establishing branches throughout England and new and larger headquarters in London, in anticipation of the suppression of the organization in Ireland.

William M. Murphy, a Nationalist member of Parliament, while sailing in his yacht in Bantry Bay with a party of friends on June 22, hoisted a green flag. The captain of H. M. S. *Shannon* sent a party of marines who hauled down the flag and carried it off. The Mayor of Cork hoisted a black flag on the occasion of the Jubilee, and the divisional magistrate superseded him and ordered that only a resident paid magistrate shall try prisoners. *United Ireland*, William O'Brien's paper, said in its first issue after the Jubilee celebration in London: "Ireland is the only civilized country in the world which did not share in the Jubilee celebration. She stood sternly and sorrowfully aloof. . . . England is cumbered by the struggles of a sullen captive; when she might purchase by justice the aid and comfort of a friend." Frank Hugh O'Donnell, formerly member of Parliament and ex-Vice-President of the Home Rule Confederation, has brought suit against the London *Times* for libel, in its comment on his recent letter of correction. It is expected that the *Times's* articles on "Parnellism and Crime" will be brought into court during the trial.

The royal British commission appointed to inquire into the Pasteur system of inoculation for hydrophobia has completed its report, which, in the main, is favorable.

There continues to be trouble at Constantinople over the ratification of the Anglo-Turkish Treaty about Egypt. On June 22 M. Nelidoff and the Count de Montebello, the Russian and French Ambassadors, addressed a note to the Porte which, it was reported (but subsequently denied at Paris), contained a threat that war should ensue should the convention be ratified. Sir Henry Drummond Wolf, the Special English Envoy, declined to modify the terms of the convention. On June 23 a hastily summoned Cabinet meeting was held in London to consider the subject. On June 27 Sir James Ferguson, Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, announced in the House of Commons that Turkey had urgently asked England to consent to a postponement until the 4th of July of the ratification of the convention, and that England had consented.

On June 28, Lord Salisbury in the House of Lords declined to lay the papers relating to the convention upon the table. The Government, he said, had acceded to the delay in signing it, on the definite understanding that the treaty should be ratified by Turkey on July 4 without fail. On the same day it was declared at Paris that England had offered Germany the protectorate of Syria in return for Germany's support of England in the Egyptian question.

Some time ago it was announced that the Pope would send two special messengers to Ireland to make a report to him on the social and political condition of the people. Subsequently it was given out that the plan had been postponed because of a feeling that so active a part in Irish affairs might produce a bad effect. But again on June 28 two Italian priests were ordered by the Pope to proceed to Dublin and to execute the original mission.

Discussion has been continued of the Pope's political ambition. On June 27, it was published at Rome that he had ordered a circular to be prepared instructing Nuncios abroad concerning his attitude on the conciliation question, and that in it he will declare that he will not renounce his right to temporal power in Rome. On the same day Mr. Smith declared in the House of Commons that no proposal to establish diplomatic relations between England and the Vatican had ever been contemplated, nor had any such proposal been made to or by the Government.

At a meeting of the French Patriotic League in Paris June 24, M. Deroulède and M. Sansbœuf delivered harangues against the Leipzig sentences of the Alsatian members of the League. A crowd gathered outside the meeting hall, shouting "Vive Boulanger," "Vive Deroulède," but it was dispersed without trouble. Some importance is attached to this meeting because it is expected that it is only the beginning of a series of demonstrations to disquiet Paris, and frighten President Grévy into either resignation or submission to Gen. Boulanger.

This meeting of the League, and the angry protests that were made against the action of the Leipzig Court, have caused the resignation of many members. Letters have been received from various branches of the League protesting against "throwing France at Boulanger's feet."

Gen. Boulanger has been appointed to the command of the Thirteenth French Army Corps.

The election of the Senate by universal suffrage has been a subject of debate in the French Chamber of Deputies. A motion to that effect was made June 27, and urgency for the motion was moved and rejected by a vote of 317 to 205. The committee appointed to inquire into the position of foreigners in France on the same day rejected a proposal to levy a special tax on them, but a proposal was made that foreigners shall be obliged to declare their domicile, in order to insure identity and subject them to the same taxes as are imposed upon Frenchmen exempt from military service, which is now under consideration.

Mr. McLane, United States Minister to France, has denied that he made other than a personal effort in behalf of Baron de Sellière, who is confined in a lunatic asylum, and who had declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States.

It is announced at Berlin that Austria and Russia will issue no invitations to foreign officers to witness the forthcoming army manœuvres.

Russia has decided to undertake the colossal enterprise of building an Asiatic trunk railway to stretch from Tomsk across Siberia to the Pacific by way of Irkutsk. The work is expected to be completed in five years. By this route the trip from St. Petersburg to the Pacific can be made in fifteen days.

It is reported that the rebellion against the Amir in Afghanistan has failed, and that the Ghilzais are returning to their homes.

A bill has been prepared at Rome, to be presented in the Chamber of Deputies, providing for the preservation of ancient Roman remains in the vicinity of the forum, the baths of Caracalla, and the Via Appia, by means of an archæological promenade enclosing them. The estimated cost of the work is $8,000,000, and the proposition is to pay it in annual rates out of the municipal treasury.

The *Lancet*, the London medical journal, on June 22 contained the following announcement: "Crown Prince Frederick William of Germany is enjoying excellent health. The appearance of the larynx is quite satisfactory. There is no congestion, but the ventricular bands are slightly relaxed. Solution of perchloride of iron has been applied on several occasions. It is probable that more of the growth will be removed early next week." The German Emperor has regained his usual good health.

King Otto of Bavaria has been officially declared insane. It is thought that an effort will be made at the next session of the Bavarian Parliament to dethrone him.

The Canadian Government recently ordered its custom officials at Windsor, Ont., to make a record of all Americans who daily cross the line to work in Canada; and the United States Collector at Niagara Falls and Suspension Bridge began June 24 to make record of the ages, residence, and occupation of the laborers, about 200 in number, who cross daily from Canada. Notices have been served upon the employers of these men that if they continue to employ foreign labor after July 1, the United States District Attorney will be advised to proceed against them according to law.

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REFORM OF OUR JURY SYSTEM.

THE Mayor's action in ordering the Commissioners of Accounts to investigate the management of the office of Commissioner of Jurors will command general approval. We trust that the Bar Association will accept his suggestion of appointing a committee to assist in the inquiry. As the Mayor says, in his letter to the judges of the city courts, the "state of public opinion in regard to the jury system" has made it his duty to order the investigation. It is in no sense a partisan persecution of the Commissioner of Jurors, or of anybody else, but a public spirited effort to find the causes of the glaring defects in the present system and reform them. For this reason the Mayor has done wisely in asking the coöperation of the lawyers and the judges, for the reform is one which they are not only deeply interested in, but are best fitted to bring about.

The evils of the present system were strongly portrayed by Judge Barrett in a recent interview with him, when he said:

> "The principal drawback to the present system is, that there is really no system at all. If the dregs of the Directory, supplemented with a limited percentage of good names, had been pitched haphazard into the jury-box, we could not have had anything worse than at present exists. The box is an insult to this great city. It seems to preponderate with a representation of everything that is low, ignorant, vicious, and unintelligent. The panels in these great trials have constantly brought forth a preponderance of illiterate and disqualified jurors. There seems also to be a preponderance of particular interests. Take the retail liquor business as an example. These people are of course entitled to representation in the jury-box the same as all other citizens. But why should they so vastly preponderate? They come to us in every name and guise, as 'liquors,' 'eating-house,' 'importer,' 'wines,' 'lager beer,' 'restaurant,' 'grocer,' 'saloon,' etc."

We have reached this pass by a steady downward course for many years. Each year the office of Commissioner of Jurors has been conducted in a more lax manner than it was the year before. The number of fit men whose names get into the jury-box steadily diminishes, for various reasons, none of which are creditable. It is merely stating what is common knowledge, to say that many pay liberally for their exemption. Undoubtedly the present Commissioner is to some extent the victim of a bad system, but it is the frankly expressed opinion of Judge Barrett and other judges that he has not made such good use of his powers as he might have done. He has governed himself rather by the methods pursued by his predecessors than by the laws upon the statute-book. Anything worse than this system which has been built up by practice it would be difficult to conceive. It puts the decision of questions of the utmost importance, involving even life itself, into the hands of men whom in private life no intelligent person would think of consulting on any subject of moment. As Judge Barrett said: "When it is considered that New York is the greatest city, commercially as well as numerically, in the Union, when her shipping, banking, insurance, and mercantile interests are thought of, it is simply frightful to contemplate controversies growing out of these special and complex matters submitted to such jurors."

The remedy which he suggested is such a complete change of system as would put upon the list all the properly qualified jurors in the city. The tax-books and lists of electors would do for a starting point. Then the membership rolls of the great exchanges and other mercantile organizations could be added. The books of the commercial agencies also could be used. Every large retail establishment in this city has an enormous book in which is set down the name of every regular purchaser of goods, with his record as a good or bad payer of bills, and it is time that the city took some such precaution for its interests as every business man has taken for years. A complete jury census of the city could be taken. Judge Barrett says 30,000 names would be ample to supply all the courts, and certainly this city, with a voting population of 230,000, ought to be able to furnish such a number of upright and intelligent men. The Judge thinks that this would require only five days' service once in two years for each man, and no public-spirited citizen could object to giving that. He thinks, also, that the convenience of business men could be consulted, and they be assigned to service during those months in which they are least occupied.

All this is rational and practicable. It is simply a proposition to apply to the public service the same principles which every business man applies to his affairs, and which, moreover, are absolutely essential to the existence of any reputable business. The trouble with the office of Commissioner of Jurors is the old one which is at the bottom of all our municipal abuses. The office has been "run," not with the object of giving the best possible service to the city, but to make it useful to "politics" first and the city afterwards. The public is at fault, for it has got full as good service as it has demanded. Nobody can deny that the tendency to shirk jury duty is almost universal among the class of men who are best fitted to perform it. The Commissioners of Jurors have taken advantage of this tendency, and, like good politicians as they have been, have used it "for all it was worth." So long as the mass of our respectable and intelligent citizens got off from duty, they did not grumble. The shocking revelations made in these long and almost hopeless searches for even decently fit men to try the "boodle" cases, have aroused a good many of our citizens to the dangerous pass to which their own neglect of duty has brought us, and to this we owe the present strong public feeling in favor of reform. The Mayor has done well, therefore, to order the inquiry at the present time.

A EUROPEAN ZOLLVEREIN.

IN obtaining a modification of the sugar duties and an imperial duty on distilled spirits, Prince Bismarck has secured a new and important support for his policy of making the Empire financially independent of the German States; of raising it from the position of an "importunate creditor" and "burdensome pensioner" of the States to a self-supporting organization. Not that the change is yet complete, for the increasing expenditures of the Empire, principally for war material, still make it in a measure dependent upon loans or upon the subscriptions made by the States to meet whatever deficiency the budget may show; but every new source of revenue for the Empire strengthens its position, and tends to lessen what has been one of the leading causes of friction in the confederation.

What the next step will be it is difficult to forecast, notwithstanding the clear outlines with which Bismarck has defined his general policy. At the end of the last session of the Reichstag the Government asserted its intention of imposing "further duties," an intention that was at the time, and doubtless in future will be, opposed by the Liberals and Progressists. What these further duties will be, and on what classes of commodities they are to be imposed, the Minister of Finance did not disclose; but it is more than probable that they will be internal or of an excise character. For years Prince Bismarck has striven for new spirit and sugar taxes, and for a tobacco monopoly such as is enjoyed with so much profit to themselves by some of the neighboring nations. He has obtained a part of his objects, though not in the form which he proposed; and a tobacco monopoly, certainly a fiscal expedient of no small importance, is yet open to agitation, however great has been the opposition it has encountered in the past

A further consideration leads to the belief that an excise duty will be the form that the Chancellor's financial schemes will assume. The tariff policy of the Empire, though regarded by many as the principal cause of Germany's industrial expansion, is not capable of being resorted to again and again for revenue purposes. Special duties, like those upon grain, cattle, or the proposed duty on wool, may be urged, but their purpose is not revenue, but protection; and it is an old maxim that where protection begins, revenue ends. As it is, the most productive duties from a revenue point of view are those that were not levied with a view to protect home industry, and more than 53 per cent. of the total customs revenue in 1884 was collected from the four commodities, coffee, tobacco, petroleum, and wines. The grain duties supplied nearly one-eighth of the total, a proof that foreign supplies of grain are essential to the support of the German population. True, the average rate of taxation under the German tariff is not very high, when measured by numbers of population; it is about the same as the per-capita tax levied through the customs in Italy, and less than that collected in France. At the same time the rate in Germany has almost doubled since 1879, and there is a strong opposition to further increase.

But, apart from this inelasticity of the German tariff from a revenue point of view, an even greater obstacle stands in the way of an increase of duties, and that is, the adoption of the protective policy by nearly every other State of continental Europe, in imitation of or in retaliation for the German tariff. Italy in 1878 raised her tariff, and thus began the change before the passage of the German law in 1879; but she has recently again modified it in the direction of higher duties. In 1881 France increased import duties by changing the rates from advalorem to specific form. Austria-Hungary followed these examples in 1882, Switzerland in 1885, and Rumania in 1886. Each nation is

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engaged in raising barrier after barrier against the competition of other nations. In 1885 Germany deliberately excluded Belgian linen from her markets, inviting reprisals, which have not yet been determined by the injured country; but in raising the duties on grain she was promptly imitated by Austria-Hungary, whose export of cereals was seriously impaired by the increased charges. And Switzerland, after two years' experience of her new tariff, is overrun by German goods and is seeking new means for removing the pressure of that competition. The duties upon wool, which a party in Germany is advocating, are really levelled against France.

The result of such a conflict of tariffs must be the same as followed a like policy so freely applied under the old mercantile system. Restriction and prohibition generally enforced must react so injuriously upon the manufactures and trade of each nation that means must be sought to remove them and make trade more free, either by the reduction of duties, a concession applying equally to all nations, or by the formation of commercial treaties in which trade privileges are exchanged reciprocally. It was only two years ago that Austria gave evidence that the pressure of hostile tariffs was already becoming unendurable; and Count Károlyi, himself a protectionist, asserted that "the European States, by their present retaliatory tariffs, would in a few years do themselves more hurt than international competition could possibly inflict."

It is by no means improbable that the treaty system will be adopted in preference to a general revision of the tariffs, as by that means there would be no necessity for removing the protection to agriculture which formed the nucleus of the higher rates and served important political ends. Switzerland is offering to enter into such a commercial treaty with Germany, while Austria is seeking to renew upon more favorable terms its agreement with Germany which expires next year, and is conducting negotiations for special commercial advantages with Italy and Rumania. The piercing of the Alps brought Germany into closer trade relations with Italy, and the economic differences of the two countries offer a fair opportunity for mutual advantage under a reciprocity treaty. Is it, after all, so wild a supposition to believe that Prof. Kaufmann's plan of a Zollverein among the nations of central Europe is more than probable? Certainly Germany, as the leading industrial nation of the Continent, would be the largest gainer; but the gains are not to be obtained by increasing the protective features of the German tariff—a step that could only excite hostility on the part of other nations.

Such a commercial union in Europe would have a peculiar significance for the United States. The attitude of Europe towards the export trade of this country has not been, and is not now, friendly. The prohibition of our hog products, the successive additions to the duties on grain and cattle, and the readiness with which any complaint against an American staple is taken up and widely circulated, often in a grossly exaggerated form, are indications of what would be the position of the customs union towards us, could it become an accomplished fact. Nor is it any secret that it was our own tariff that supplied a model to be imitated by Europe, though the most mischievous feature—the duties on raw materials—was discarded. It is by the application of our own methods and instruments that a most telling blow can be struck at our production and commerce. When the "United States of Europe"—the phrase is borrowed from the *Kölnische Zeitung*—are pitted commercially against the United States of America, perhaps the question "What have we to do with abroad?" will receive more respectful consideration than heretofore.

VACATIONS IN CHURCHES.

THIS is the season when annually arises the question of clerical vacations, closed churches, the suspension in great measure of evangelizing work; that is, of the most important business, and in the professed belief of those who run away from and abandon it, the only seriously important business of mankind. That the question annually recurs should indicate that it deserves attention; yet if by those most concerned it is never heeded but merely is put by, with perhaps a petulant retort flung over the shoulder of some retreating parson on his way to the mountains or the sea, it may seem hardly worth while to raise it, after all. Still it does press for answer. The inquisitive public does not settle down forgetful, and content with a petulant retort, nor will it cease to be faithless and become believing until some competent person shall explain why it is that the supreme and only really serious business of this world cannot go on in a temperature much over eighty degrees of Fahrenheit.

A good deal of extravagant statement is current on this topic, and not a little unthinking or deliberately unfair comment. An item now going the rounds of the country press says that 126 ministers sailed from New York for Europe on a recent Saturday's steamers. This tale is not confirmed by any facts known to us, and is wholly improbable; still, no doubt, a great many clergymen do go abroad every year, probably more in proportion than of men in any other calling. But there are good reasons for this, of which perhaps the first of all is that a vacation is a very good thing and a useful thing, which a man may gladly take when he can fairly get it; then, besides, there are many cases where the sanatory effects of a sea voyage and of diversion really are needed, and the journey serves to repair or confirm or strengthen bodily and mental powers in a manner truly economical. Then some of the clergy may have strictly professional concerns abroad, while some are eminent scholars and preachers, who have a sort of representative function, and whose presence and action in high places in foreign lands do honor and credit to this country and amount to a public service. Besides these particular considerations, there is the general one that, so to speak, the technique of the clerical profession is more uniform than that of other callings, from which it happens that in its exercise one man may serve in place of another more readily and with better effect, and that continuing ministerial work efficiently is in great part a mere matter of "supply." We believe, indeed, that the clerical vacation business is overdone, but we think by no means to the extent which is sometimes pictured, after all fair allowance is made.

This, however, is only the fringe of the matter. The real question is about the cost, and as to that we are clear that no preacher of the Gospel should take a vacation, as many do, at the cost of suspending religious ministrations in his own field. The public instinct is wholly right concerning this. There is, in truth, no reason imaginable, on the ministers' own theory of their existence, for closing up the churches and stopping all offices of religion. Even in cases of repairs which render a building actually uninhabitable for the time, plenty of other places for temporary use may be found. Yet we find in the *Mail and Express*, under the heading, "Satan Will Be on Hand While the Preachers Are in Europe," a partial list only, in which we count seventeen Protestant churches of New York, including a few of the "low" Episcopal variety (The Incarnation, Zion, and St. Mark's), which are to be closed this summer for periods varying from two weeks to two months. Here are a few examples:

"The Memorial Church will be closed during July and August, while Dr. Robinson takes his vacation in the White Mountains."

"The First Church will be closed until September 18, and the new organ will be placed in position by the Roosevelt Company. Rev. Richard D. Harlan, the pastor, sailed for Europe last Tuesday on the *Alaska*, and will be gone all summer.'

"The Scotch Church will be closed in July."

"Rutgers Church will be closed during July and August, and Dr. Booth will have two months of vacation."

"The Church of the Covenant will be closed during July and August, while Dr. Vincent is at Bristol, R. I."

We have been led ourselves to consider the subject newly from reading a sort of confession and avoidance published lately in a religious periodical by a Doctor in Divinity—something in advance, and as it were in deprecation, of expected strictures, as we may infer from the remark that "it were very much to be wished that people who are so ready to criticise the churches on this point would bring a little common sense and knowledge of the facts to bear, instead of taking up the hue-and-cry started by newspaper flings." How much of common sense and knowledge of the facts is brought to bear by the writer of that remark may be judged from his employment of the question-begging phrase "deserted, sun-beaten streets of New York in August." "Deserted," with a million and a half of people in them—more than are actually preached to by all our missionary agencies on the face of the globe! The writer says:

"There are churches which ought to be kept open, either because their own congregations largely remain in town, or because they command districts out of which a summer congregation is sure to be gathered. There are other churches where neither of these reasons holds, and where an expenditure of $200 or $300 and preaching of the best quality are met with an attendance of from 60 to 100. I passed a part of last August in the city, and attended service on two successive Sundays in two of our most prominent Presbyterian churches. The days were fair, the preaching excellent, but the congregation in one church was not over a hundred, and in the other and larger church suggested Virgil's familiar line:

Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto.

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The amount of the matter is, that in many cases, if the pastor *did* remain at home, he would have principally empty seats to preach to."

Really, on reading this one must stop to ask if there is not in the New Testament an authoritative valuation of a human soul, and whether it is "two or three hundred dollars" for "from sixty to a hundred."

But the clerical writer has reversed the procedure of Balaam, and, being called to bless, he has cursed altogether. For he says immediately:

"In this same summer, however, I had brought home to me, as never before, the justice of a complaint which is urged in connection with the summer exodus, but which is wrongfully bound up with the matter of the minister's vacation. When it was known that I was in town, I was besieged with applications for funeral services, and was impressed with the difficulty of finding any one to officiate. I had not supposed that the city was so stripped of ministers."

Precisely, and there is no answer to this but "repentance and better minds"; all answers in words excite either regret or laughter, according to the temperament of the reader. The writer of the article now under mention, *e. g.*, says:

"The demand for periods of recreation in the case of ministers is peculiar. I am tempted to say that it is *greater* in their profession than in any other. I confine the discussion here entirely to city pastors. . . .

"I have heard a distinguished New York minister say that if he had only his regular preaching and pastoral work to do, he should feel quite like a man of leisure; and yet most men would consider *that* work quite sufficient. The city pastor is not allowed to confine himself to his legitimate work. . . . They must dabble in finance, in real estate, in journalism. They must confer on the interests of seminaries and act as examiners of candidates for the ministry. Editors are after them for articles; societies of all kinds for speeches."

No doubt there is something of truth in this, though, to speak of what we may be allowed to know, we have very grave doubts that "Editors are after them for articles." But the point is, that, so far as it is true, it is true of everybody else. What man in full work in New York to-day can "confine himself to his legitimate work"? The foregoing may be called a typical passage, but for a perfect illustration of professional myopia take the following:

"Every one of these men [*i. e.*, men of worldly business] has fifty-two days in each year when business is suspended and he can do what he will. If he choose to keep himself occupied with business on those days, that is his own matter; but he must not plead that folly as a reason why another man should be a fool. Those fifty-two days are a minister's hardest working days, days of strong excitement and great expenditure of nervous energy."

We are obliged to say, in phrase doubly appropriate, "Why, this is very Midsummer madness." Turn the phrase around, and we have, "Every one of the ministers has 313 days in each year when business is suspended and he can do what he will. Those 313 days are a layman's hardest working days," etc. One is as true as the other, and more forcible in proportion to the numbers involved.

At the end of the list of closed churches from which we have quoted we read: "The Roman Catholic churches are of course always open every day. If their priests take any vacation, it is not perceptible in any decrease in the number of services." This well-known truth is a perfect answer to all the evasions of the Protestant brethren. It would be fortunate if the latter could once fully know and feel how their neglect of duty and their feeble excuses for it, their practical insincerity and lack of taking their own professions seriously, affect the public mind, and could be persuaded of the truth of the saying of Dr. Phillips Brooks: "Popular scepticism being what it is, the main method of meeting it must be, not an argument, but a man; the minister, in other words, who deals with unbelief most successfully to-day will not be he who is most skilful in proving truths or disproving errors, but he who is most powerful in strengthening faith in people's lives by the way in which the power of faith is uttered through his own character." If by such means, or by any means, they might learn that religion suffers more, perhaps, from their summer neglect than it gains from their winter labors, it is possible that we should see the end of a grave scandal.

COL. INGERSOLL'S NEW ENGLAND MYSTERY.

THE account given by Col. "Bob" Ingersoll in the Beecher "symposium" memorial volume, just published in Brooklyn, of the conditions under which Henry Ward Beecher was born and brought up, is one of the blackest pictures of life we have ever read. The preacher's birthplace, according to the Colonel, was "a Puritan penitentiary, of which his father was one of the wardens—a prison with very narrow and closely grated windows. Under its walls were the rayless, hopeless, and measureless dungeons of the damned, and on its roof fell the shadow of God's eternal frown." His home was simply "an inquisition in which babes were tutored for the good of their souls," in which "their wills were broken or subdued, their natures deformed and dwarfed, their desires defeated or destroyed, their development arrested or perverted. Life was robbed of its spring, its summer, and autumn. . . . No laughter, no sunshine, no joyous, free, unburdened days." The orthodox Congregationalism of that day, too, was as "heartless and inhuman" as the religion of cannibals. "It despised every natural joy, hated pictures, abhorred statues as lewd and lustful things, execrated music, regarded nature as fallen and corrupt, man as totally depraved, and woman as somewhat worse." All this and a good deal more in the year 1813, in which Henry Ward Beecher was born. And yet, the Colonel admits, in "this atmosphere of theological miasma, in this hideous dream of superstition, in this penitentiary, moral and austere," "the virtues found a welcome cordial and sincere; duty was done as understood; truth was told; self denial was practised for the sake of others, and hearts were good and true, in spite of book and creed."

Now, how is this contradiction, we would ask the Colonel, to be explained? How was it that children who grew up in this infernal state of things cared, by the time they reached manhood, anything about the virtues or tried to practise them? How was it that their hearts were good and true? How was it that, after having had their wills broken or subdued, each generation had will enough left to keep the penitentiary going for their own babes? How, in short, did society keep civilized and decent, while professing this barbarous creed for well-nigh two centuries?

The answer is, we think, very simple. The old New England Congregationalists did not believe with their hearts what they talked with their mouths about the nature and prospects of the human infant, any more than the Colonel believes his own descriptions of the effect of their creed on their lives. There was a monstrous deal of rhetoric in their expositions of the old doctrines, just as there is in the Colonel's account of their homes. Henry Ward Beecher could not have come out of one of these homes, as the Colonel says he did, simply by "getting glimpses through the grated windows of his cell of the outer world of fields and skies." Cause and effect worked in the usual way in the old New England. Animals and plants produced after their kind. Grapes did not grow on thorns or figs on thistles. The old Puritan homes, making allowance for the scanty means and simple lives of people in those days, were very happy except on Sundays. For the principal cloud on them for the infant was not really a theological cloud at all. He was no more in constant dread of being damned than his father was, but he did live in more or less fear of corporal chastisement in his mother's chamber or in the woodshed. But then, owing to the wonderful adaptability of human nature to its environment, the child of 1813 did not suffer mentally from exposure to the rod as a child in our day would. It was the common lot of all his friends and playmates, a daily risk they all ran, and which they got used to, and which did not in the least repress their cheerfulness. That they passed their time in constant dread of God Almighty and Satan, and had their lives saddened thereby, is—we do not mean to be disrespectful—rhetorical gammon.

Undoubtedly there were passages in the lives of a great many New England people in which they were made profoundly unhappy by meditation on their own relations to their Creator as they understood them. But no one can read the journals, or letters, or travels of the end of the last century without seeing that the community was on the whole a happy and cheerful one, whose main sorrow was that the good things of life were so hard to get at. When obtained they were thoroughly enjoyed, although rum probably contributed more to social mirthfulness than we now think desirable. Ministers and deacons drew awful pictures in church of the condition of "the sinner," and of the outlook for him, but they did not allow these views to influence their social or business activity or their treatment of their families, in the way in which the Colonel supposes when the rhetorical fever is upon him. They undoubtedly ought logically to have felt and behaved as he says they did, but then there are and always have been but very few people in the world who are willing to be thoroughly consistent in the government of their lives, and these few are mostly found in Trappist monasteries.

THE FIRST PILGRIMAGE TO CAPRERA.

GENOA, June 7, 1887.

THE originators of the first pilgrimage to Caprera were three silent, deed-doing veterans,

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all of the Thousand: Missori, who saved Garibaldi in a hand-to-hand fight at Milazzo against desperate odds; Bruzzesi, "present" at every roll-call; Antongini, wounded everywhere, wept for as dead by Garibaldi in the Tyrol, found and restored to health and again foremost on the battlefield of Mentana. Benedetto Cairoli, the last of five brothers—four dead for Italy, he himself maimed—was elected president, but sudden, and it is feared dangerous, illness detains him in Rome. The railway and maritime companies accorded tickets half price, and at midday on the 5th instant three fine vessels of Rubattino's American and Indian line steamed out of the port of Genoa, other two from Civitavecchia, with something like 5,000 pilgrims bound for the Caprera shrine.

The sea was calm as a summer lake, the sky blue and cloudless, the *evvivas* of the populace assembled on the quay following us till Genoa herself grew dim and the eyes of all on deck sought eagerly the belfry tower of Quarto, whence the expedition of the Thousand started on the 5th of May seven and twenty years ago. At eight next morning we sighted the Maddalena; then, on entering the Strait of Moneta, the small White House rose to view. What visions realized, what hopes foregone, returned to memory in the silence that fell upon us all! To my mind returned most specially the evening of October, 1867, when, gazing from the terrace on the Italian fleet that hemmed him in, we arranged the General's flight, one of the most marvellous feats that he ever effected, eluding in his tiny dingy the vigilance of nine men-of-war and all the craft of the surrounding islands pressed into service.

The Government having placed barks and steam-tugs at the service of the pilgrims, we landed at Caprera without touching at the Maddalena, on the rough pier of granite blocks built by the General. The steamers from Civitavecchia had arrived before us, and the pilgrims from the south were already ascending the heights by the one tolerable road leading to the bit of level land sheltered by the huge gray granite rocks where the house and garden stand. We, leaving the procession, wound our way through the low copse of cistus in full white bloom, of the myrtle just budding, and so reached the enclosure where Garibaldi lies, his two children, Rosa and Anita, beside him; myrtle and cistus, tamarisks, cedars, firs, and pine trees encircling them. It was only quite late in life that Garibaldi set his mind upon having his body burned. He had always had a horror of being buried in the sea, and when, in a sea-fight against Brazilian foes, most of his comrades lay dead upon the deck, he, prostrate with what he deemed his mortal wound, after giving practical directions to the one able seaman for gaining Santa Fé, whispered to a schoolmate and now a comrade to bury him on shore, to place over his grave—

> "A stone distinguishing my bones from those
> Which Death sows infinite in earth and sea."*

From the time he purchased his rocky plot at Caprera, which he had longed for since it served him as a refuge after Anita's death, when Sardinia exiled him, France expelled him, England refused him refuge at Malta, and America gave him his only asylum, he decided to be buried there—indeed, asked formal permission from the Italian Government in 1862. The solitude, the stern wildness, the very barrenness of Caprera was congenial to his nature, a nature *that never acted on impulse*, though the lightning swiftness of action following upon long-matured designs led people to believe that this was the case. There among those rocks in 1858 he decided to place his republican sword at the service of Victor Emanuel for war against Austria, spent but three days on the Continent to see the King and sound the tocsin, three months remained silent there till in April he could cry, "To arms." So, in the four months that elapsed between the prohibition to pass the Rubicon and the expedition of the Thousand to Marsala, there he planned the attack on Rome which ended on the Bitter Mount, and again that other expedition which ended at Mentana. There he decided "on offering all that was left of him" to France, invaded and nearly annihilated, there he buried his two young daughters and wrote his yet unpublished memoirs—a simple record of facts, having nothing in common with his crude attempts at novel-writing or his declamations against priests and tyrants.

When the first idea of being burned occurred to him I cannot say, but I have always fancied that he took it from Capt. Roberts, a great friend of Byron's, who was with the poet when Shelley was drowned and burned upon the shores of Lerici. I remember once, in 1875 or 1876, telling him about the heretics' cemetery at Rome, and showing him a photograph I had just had taken of the tombs of Keats and Shelley. "Roberts told me all about the burning of Shelley," he said, "but I never asked where they could get wood enough on that barren shore. Perhaps they used the tarred planks of the many wrecks strewed there." I told him the details of the whole proceedings as Trelawny has recorded them, and no more was said. But at the end of 1876, after a long conversation with Dr. Prandina, an old ambulance surgeon who died last year, he wrote with his own hand the following letter:

"My Dear Prandina: You have undertaken the burning of my corpse, and I am very grateful to you. On the road leading from this house northward to the sea, at a distance of about three hundred paces to the left, is a hollow surrounded by a wall. Build up there a pyre two metres square with boughs of acacia, myrtle, lentisk, and other aromatic trees; place on the pyre an iron brand [literally, bedstead]; on this the open bier, and within, my body, adorned with the red shirt. Save a handful of the ashes in any sort of urn, and place it on the tomb which contains the bodies of my daughters, Rosa and Anita.

"Ever yours, G. Garibaldi."

About the same date, in a letter, he writes:

"As I have in my will and testament ordered my body to be burned, I charge my wife to obey my bidding before giving notice to any one of my death."

This, of course, was impossible. Menotti, the eldest son, arrived in time to close his father's eyes; the heart of all Italy beat but for Caprera; none dared to deal with remains so precious in such sudden, simple fashion. Absolute obedience, too, seemed impossible, as the aromatic timber that could be collected was insufficient, and Garibaldi had willed to be burned, pagan fashion, in open bier, with face upturned to sky, not "cremated," shut up in an iron coffin, as the modern fashion has it. The family and friends, deputies and senators, ministers, and a whole army of volunteers, gathered on the island, discussed, protested, pleaded; but Garibaldi, dead, was not obeyed: the remains were embalmed, coffined, and covered with this immense granite block, after four had broken into fragments as though disdainful of their office. But the time will come when the voice of the dead Duce will be obeyed as ever it was in life; his remains will be burned, and above them will tower a massive granite lighthouse for the illumination of mariners and others tossed on life's stormy sea.

Yesterday, by tacit consent, no allusion was made to the vexed question which so convulsed Italy in 1882. Only a few pilgrims wandered northward to the now neglected hollow where the General, who knew himself to be dying, had caused to be collected heaps of aromatic boughs.

At the White House, Teresita greeted us with her father's smile and voice; her husband, Canzio, and Menotti gave the welcome so dear to old comrades, to whom nothing of the past remains save memory. Garibaldi's bedroom is left just as when he died; only his sword of 1860 hangs over it, while in what was once the dining-room are carefully preserved all the commemorative offerings brought or sent during the last five years—a very hecatomb of crowns and garlands, wreaths of fresh flowers, bronze shields, curiously carved medallions, portraits of fallen braves, inscriptions innumerable. All round the house the garden was ablaze with flowers, the scarlet geranium luxuriating in such immense masses that one might imagine an army of red shirts bivouacking there.

From the shadow of a pine tree by the fountain which supplied the General with the sparkling water he liked so well, we watched the grand procession organized as for battle-march defile. At the tomb the flags and banners (and there were hundreds) were all lowered as they passed—some all too new and bright to have seen much good work done, but among these were tatters concealed from the Austrians in Lombardy, from the priests in Rome after 1848 and 1849—flags that had seen the flight of the Austrians from the heights of S. Fermo, at Como and Varese, been carried at a dash up the terraces of Calatafimi, floated over the smoking ruins of Palermo, flashing "victory along all the line" on the Volturno; flags borne triumphantly at Bezecca, on the dismantled fortresses of the Tyrol, only to be lowered at Ponte Cafaro when, to the order of exodus, the General answered, "I obey." There was the flag, too, that had covered the hero wounded on the Bitter Mount, that other that replaced the white and yellow on the turret tower of Monte Rotondo, and, though rifled by French bullets, guided the defeated of Mentana. Then the last but dearest of all, the flag of the Thousand put together on board the *Piedmont*, the first lowered on Mazzini's tomb by express order of the General, who, on hearing of the death of the Apostle of Unity, said, "Let the flag of the *Mille* float over the tomb of the grand Italian."

The defiling occupied a couple of hours, twenty bands playing at intervals Garibaldi's hymn, Mameli's war march, or the "Addio, Ninetta, addio," or the sad lament for "Camicia mia, camicia bella." Such a profusion of flowers wrought into love messages never have I beheld. Nice alone sent ten magnificent garlands of living flowers or of immortelles, one having in the centre an alabaster model of the tomb where Garibaldi's mother and Anita sleep—on foreign soil. Too painfully strange it seemed to all to see the French tricolor, draped in black, streaming from the beautiful garland sent by the *Ville de Nice*. Palermo did her liberator due honor, sending a deputation of six municipal councillors; even so Rome and Naples. The Chamber of Deputies was represented by old Achille Majocchi, amputated at Calatafimi in June, who yet again officered his battalion at S. Maria di Capua in October.

The speeches were few, short, and simple. Majocchi at the tomb insisted on the duty of the people's representatives to complete the moral unity of the country, to whose material unification Garibaldi had consecrated his life. Cavallotti, a favorite soldier and poet of Garibaldi's, spoke from the terrace of the White House for unredeemed Italy, and, wisely avoiding the vexed African question, said: "Our meeting here from every part and province of Italy ought to mean the burial in that tomb of all municipal strife and discord, a hearty reconciliation between Italians to complete the works left unfinished by our dead. This is the only conciliation that Garibaldi's soldiers and mourners under-

* A quotation from Foscolo's "Sepulchres," which, as a boy, Garibaldi learned by heart.

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stand." The perfect silence that prevailed throughout the day, broken only by the bands and these speeches, preserved the ceremony from any theatrical effect. After every one of the pilgrims had been admitted to visit the memorial rooms, entering to the south and making their exit to the north of the house, all dispersed over the island to collect relics—coral, shells, red granite, sparkling mica, myrtle, lentisk, broom, wild olive branches and cistus, uprooting the entire trees if possible. Nor did Signora Francesca complain, though the gardens were utterly despoiled—despoiled in vandal English fashion, and it is the first time that I have seen such a thing done in Italy. I say, "Donna Francesca permitted it." Garibaldi's three children by Anita (who, by the way, was Garibaldi's lawful wedded wife, nor ever the wife of any other man, as biographers report) resigned all claim to the island, wishing to present it to the country; but, as the youngest boy, Manlio, is a minor, his mother objected, and so the question remains in abeyance until he comes of age. Manlio was not at Caprera, as he is just passing his examination at the military college at Leghorn, but sent a magnificent wreath to his father's tomb.

Were I to recount all the incidents and episodes that occurred during the forty-eight hours, my letter would be far too long; but one is worthy of note. On board the *Balduino*, a large steamer of the Rubattino-American line, the third-class passengers complained of their fare as scanty and savorless, while the table of the first and second class was most amply provided with viands and four sorts of wine. So a vote proposed was carried by acclamation to have but one table in common, the first and second-class passengers contenting themselves with only ordinary wine and two instead of six dishes of meats and vegetables. That trait of Garibaldian equality was a real bit out of the past.

Arriving at Genoa, such of the pilgrims as were not compelled to start by train wound their way up to Mazzini's tomb at Staglieno. Here, with a translation made by an American lady, is Carducci's sonnet, bearing the motto of young Italy, and referring to the actual first meeting which took place between Mazzini and Garibaldi in 1830:

ORA E SEMPRE.

(Davanti il Pantheon.)

"Ora—: e la mano il giovine nizzardo
Biondo con sfavillanti occhi porgea,
E come su la preda un leopardo
Il suo pensiero a l'avvenir correa.

"E sempre—: con la man fiso lo sguardo
L'austero genovese a lui rendea;
E su 'l tumulto eroico il gagliardo
Lume discese di l'eterna idea.
Ne l'aer d'alte visïon sereno
Suona il verbo di fede, e si diffonde
Oltre i regni di morte e di fortuna.

"Ora—dimanda per lo ciel Staglieno,
Sempre—Caprera in mezzo al mar risponde:
Grande su 'l Pantheon vigila la luna.

"Now! And the fair-haired youth of Nice extends
His hand, with flushing cheek and sparkling eyes,
And, like a leopard on the prey it rends,
His thoughts rush on to where the future lies.

"Forever! While his steadfast gaze he bends,
Genoa's austere son accepts that hand;
And on th' heroic tumult of the land
The light of the eternal Thought descends,
And in the heaven of visions high and fair
Resounds the word of faith, and through the sky,
Beyond the realms of death and chance, spreads free.

"Now! lone Staglieno's tomb calls through the air;
Forever! cries Caprera from the sea.
Over the Pantheon the moon watches high."

GEFFROY'S 'MADAME DE MAINTENON.'

PARIS, June 17, 1887.

M. GEFFROY, member of the French Institute, has undertaken a somewhat ungrateful task, not in publishing a critical selection of Mme. de Maintenon's letters, but in preceding it with a long biography, which aims to be a complete apologia of this famous royal favorite. It seems difficult to make a complete edition of the letters of Mme. de Maintenon. It is well known now that the edition issued by La Beaumelle has but little value, and that he completely disfigured the admirable documents which fell into his hands. Mme. de Maintenon destroyed, so it was said by her contemporaries, all her correspondence with Louis XIV., and it must be much regretted that she made this sacrifice, as these letters would have an extraordinary value. M. Lavallée, who undertook to publish all the correspondence of Mme. de Maintenon, found many inedited letters; but his work was interrupted, and his fifth volume, which is very rare, does not go beyond the year 1705. We have in reality nothing on the latter period of the reign of Louis XIV., during which she played such an important part. Of the earlier period we have chiefly mere copies made at Saint-Cyr, and composed of fragments which served for the education of the young ladies in this establishment. It is not impossible that we shall find some day the letters of Mme. de Maintenon to Boufflers, to the princes of the royal family, to the Duke of Burgundy, to the Queen of Spain, to the Duc du Maine. M. Geffroy gives us chiefly her correspondence with her spiritual director, the Abbé Gobelin, her letters to the "dames de Saint-Louis," to the Archbishop of Paris, who became Cardinal de Noailles, to Mme. de Dangeau, to Mme. de Caylus, her long correspondence with the Duc de Noailles, and with Mme. des Ursins.

Mme. de Maintenon has remained to this time a psychological problem: she has her enemies and her friends. Some call her ambitious, others believe her to have been humble and afraid of her own power and influence. Was she an intriguer, a ruling spirit, had she the head and the heart of the greatest statesmen, or was she merely placed by circumstances in the sphere of absolute power, and did she long, in her brilliant Olympus, for a quiet and obscure existence? Was she a victim of her own beauty, of her own wit, of the charms which had made her the favorite and the secret wife of the greatest sovereign of her time; or was she an artful, wicked, cruel, hypocritical woman, determined to establish and to maintain her empire, and to sacrifice everything to her love of power? Was she the cleverest of women, at a time when French society produced so many remarkable women, or had she a common, ordinary intelligence? It has been said that in the seventeenth century the cooks wrote the best of French; her detractors will not even admit any great literary merit in her letters; they pronounce them to be no better than the letters of any other lady of the day. "Adhuc sub judice lis est." M. Geffroy is on the side of the apologists; he is, indeed, the most passionate among those who have dared to take up the defence of Mme. de Maintenon.

Is it necessary to name her enemies? Their name is legion. Who does not remember the burning invectives of the honest Duchess of Orleans, the mother of the Regent? She expressed a real horror for Mme. de Maintenon. What shall we say of the judgment of Saint-Simon, written not for his contemporaries, but for posterity? He speaks of her extraordinary fortune in terms which cannot be forgotten. He tells us how M. and Mme. de Montespan knew Mme. Scarron, at the house of Marshal d'Albret; how, when Mme. de Montespan became the mistress of Louis XIV. and had her first children by him, she proposed to the King to confide them to Mme. Scarron, to whom a house was given for that purpose in the Marais. Afterwards, the children were brought to court and their governess with them. Louis XIV. did not like Mme. Scarron at first, but was induced by Mme. de Montespan to give her the estate of Maintenon. She repaired the old château and became Mme. de Maintenon. Louis XIV. could not understand the great friendship which Mme. de Montespan had for her, and asked several times for her dismissal. He began to change his mind when the governess took the young Duc du Maine to certain spas, and travelled with him to Flanders, to Barèges in the Pyrenees; Louis XIV. read her letters and found them sensible and well written.

Mlle. d'Aubigné cannot be blamed for having married at the age of sixteen the poet Scarron. She had no protector, no fortune. Scarron was to her a friend, not a husband. She became a widow at the age of twenty-five. Scarron had made her acquainted with good society; she cannot well be excused for having consented to become the governess of two children, born of a double adultery. This is, in my eyes, the critical part of her life. She was essentially wrong in accepting the situation which Mme. de Montespan offered her. She professed to be very religious, and speaks constantly in her letters of the charms of conventual life; she would have done much better, if she could not marry again, to enter a convent than to live in equivocal relations with Mme. de Montespan and with her royal lover. Mme. de Sévigné, who had much good sense, knew her as Mme. Scarron, and, as such, liked her. "We take supper every evening with Mme. Scarron. She has a mind amiable and naturally right. It is a pleasure to hear her discuss; . . . her society is delicious." Afterwards, when people began to see the favor of Mme. de Maintenon increase, Mme. de Sévigné writes to her daughter: "I will show you, my dear, a *dessous de cartes* which will surprise you. This great friendship between Mme. de Montespan and her friend became two years ago a real aversion. It is a bitterness, an antipathy: it is white and then black. And why? Because the friend's pride is in revolt against the other. She does not like to obey. She consents to belong to the father, not to the mother."

Mme. de Montespan's love for the King was a continual tempest. The favorite was proud, ill-tempered, exacting; the King longed for rest. He longed for a quiet, solitary, decent *liaison*. He could not bear solitude, but he wanted a companion who would be to him what the shadow is to the body. He discovered by degrees, and somewhat to his astonishment at first, that the governess of his illegitimate children could fill his leisure hours noiselessly, pleasantly. She was discreet, reserved, sensible; she could keep a secret like a confessor; she could give advice and not boast of it; she could enter wholly, completely into the occupations, the preoccupations, the anxieties, the emotions of his own life—lose herself, so to speak, completely, and give him the sense of a sort of dual existence. Greatness is solitude; and who was ever as great as the "Grand Roi"? He was naturally sad and needed a companion, an echo. Mme. de Maintenon became this echo.

She was an echo much more than an inspirer. She was not of a despotic and overruling disposition. The pamphleteers and even the historians have made her responsible for many acts and resolutions which were really not her work. In one sense, however, she might be said to be responsible: she acquired a great influence—the influence due to a constant assiduity and to a complete devotion; and she might have used this influence in sometimes resisting and counteracting the royal resolutions. But who knows if the influence we speak of was not due to the complete abdication of her will? When two human beings have lived long together, like Mme. de Maintenon and the King, inseparable, tied together by the strongest of human ties, it becomes very difficult to say which of the two has had more influence in such or such a determination.

When Mme. de Montespan fairly fell into disgrace and was reduced to the honorary post of

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superintendent of the Queen's household, Mme. de Maintenon was appointed *dame d'atour* of the Dauphine. She thus became entirely independent of Mme. de Montespan. Her favor soon became apparent; the King entered with her into a new and unknown country, which Mme. de Sévigné calls "la commerce de l'amitié et de la conversation, sans contrainte et sans chicane." The courtiers whispered that Mme. de Maintenon's real name was Mme. de *Maintenant*. She spent all her evenings with the King, and how did she employ her new favor? First, in converting or trying to convert all the members of her family, who were still Protestants. She stopped at nothing, and employed means which were a sort of anticipation of the methods followed at the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. She sent M. de Villette, who refused to be converted, on a long journey (Mme. de Villette was the favorite daughter of the famous Agrippa d'Aubigné, and an ardent Calvinist), and during his absence she procured the abjuration of his young son, and placed him in a military academy. She also took advantage of the absence of M. de Villette to get possession of Mlle. de Mursay, who became Mme. de Caylus. Mlle. de Mursay left her mother and arrived at Paris with some cousins—young Saint-Hermine, Mlle. de Saint-Hermine, and Mlle. de Caumont. "We arrived together in Paris," says Mme. de Caylus in her memoirs. "Mme. de Maintenon came immediately and took me to Saint-Germain. I wept much afterwards; but the next day I found the King's mass so beautiful that I consented to make myself a Catholic, on condition that I should hear mass every day and that I should never be whipped. This was the only controversy employed, and the only abjuration I made." The other cousins, being a little older, resisted a little longer, but finally they all gave in.

These conversions are not a glorious page in the history of Mme. de Maintenon, and her conduct towards the children of M. de Villette lends much probability to the opinion of Saint-Simon, who makes her afterwards chiefly responsible for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. It is well known that converts are often intolerant, and easily become persecutors. The religious intolerance of Mme. de Maintenon was a sort of self-justification. M. Geffroy tries in vain to upset the theory of Saint-Simon; he finds no good arguments. It is true that in her letters she recommends to her brother, D'Aubigné, tolerance towards the Calvinists in his government, but she applauds constantly after 1685 the destruction of heresy, and even the massacres of the Camisards in Languedoc. In an answer to a memoir written in 1697, 'On the best manner of effecting the conversion of the Huguenots,' she declares that it would be dangerous to recall the Huguenots and to abolish the decrees published after 1685. We do not attach much importance, in this question, to the opinion of Voltaire, who wrote to Formey, on January 17, 1753, "Why do you say that Mme. de Maintenon had much part in the revocation of the Edict of Nantes? She had no part at all in it. This is a certain fact. She never dared to contradict Louis XIV." We may easily believe that she did not often contradict the King; but an artful woman has many ways of bringing her lover to her own opinion. Mme. de Maintenon was artful, though some writers would try to persuade us that she was a simple-minded person. She first used her increasing credit in trying to separate the King from his mistresses, and preached to him virtue and conjugal fidelity. Did she ever really work in the interest of the Queen? Would she have been contented, by the side of the Queen, with the part of a confidante and an adviser? She was older than Maria Theresa, older than Louis XIV.; but in 1680 she was only forty-five years old. She could not foresee that the Queen would die in 1683. She had already become indispensable: she had brought Louis XIV. to the point where he could refuse her nothing. She was married to him secretly, and D'Aubigné, her profligate brother, called Louis XIV. boldly, "my brother-in-law." Saint-Simon pretends that her ambition even then was not satisfied, that she wished to be declared Queen, that Louvois, the Archbishop of Paris, Harlay, Fénelon, the Duc de Beauvilliers, fell into disgrace for having determined the King to refuse her this last favor. M. Geffroy tries to prove the contrary. There are mysteries which are never unravelled. Louis XIV. was weak as a man, but he had a very exalted idea of royalty. He could not live without his Maintenon; he did not wish to present her as the Queen to his own people and to his brother-kings in Europe.

Correspondence.

THE FRENCH FINANCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of May 26, No. 1143, contains an article entitled "The French Crisis," which it is impossible for a Frenchman, and, I may add, for an impartial and well-informed reader, to let pass without a word of protest. Neglecting all minor errors—such as the bold assertion that popular sentiment demands Gen. Boulanger as a necessary member of the Cabinet—I willingly point to that most astonishing phrase: "The shrewdest financial heads in France, in fact, such men as Léon Say and Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, believe that a Treasury collapse of some kind is not far away." I have read with the greatest care for the past five years every book, every article, written by Say and Leroy-Beaulieu. I consider both of them to be clever, patriotic, and sincere men, not afraid to speak harshly when it is necessary to enforce a painful truth on public opinion. Now, I can declare that neither one nor the other ever wrote or spoke *a word* predicting a Treasury collapse in our country; further, I maintain that Leroy-Beaulieu, the only one who writes regularly in the *Économiste Français*, has not ceased to repeat that if the state of our Treasury is embarrassing, French finances and French public wealth are very far from being in danger. About six weeks ago Beaulieu, examining the returns of the taxes on donations and legacies, showed how steadily and speedily those taxes have increased for the last twenty years, and came to the conclusion, which is shared by all financial authorities, that the improvement of our finances would be a matter of no difficulty if only peace and interior tranquillity could be maintained. What must Americans think of French statesmen who are accused, *without the slightest foundation*, of having uttered *words of treason* such as the foretelling of a financial collapse would be? And what must American readers think of the French public which is mad enough to pay 82 francs for 3 per cent. funds, when those 3 per cents are in danger—according to your writer—of not being paid to-morrow or the day after?

I will not trespass upon your space by trying to give a correct idea of the state of French finances and of the real or unreal embarrassments of our exchequer. But two points I must briefly insist upon, (1) that Gen. Boulanger, whatever may be said against him, has not had the least influence on the French budget and deficit: any Parliament and any Minister of War would have felt the necessity of modifying our rifles when Germany had adopted a similar change in her armament, and this has been the only extraordinary expense for the War Department during the last twelvemonth; (2) that people ought to reflect, before they speak about a possible, nay, a probable, collapse of the French Treasury, on the privileged and exceptional nature of the French public debt. Not only is the debt almost entirely in the hands of Frenchmen, so that the payment of the interest does not make the country a franc poorer, but—and I am afraid many Americans do not know this—*all the French railways must become the property of the State a hundred years after their opening to traffic.* In fact, as early as 1950 the greater part of our railways will already be State property, thus affording at once the means of repaying, if it be thought necessary, more than half of the public debt. A country which possesses the bare ownership of all the railways built on its soil is not in danger of a "Treasury collapse."—Truly yours,

SALOMON REINACH.

PARIS, June 5, 1887.

[We were thinking of going over M. Leroy-Beaulieu's articles on French finances in the *Économiste Français* during the last two or three years for the purpose of showing, by numerous quotations, how rash M. Reinach's assertions are, and how defective his memory is, when we took up the last number, of June 14, containing another discussion of the same subject by the same writer. In it M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows that the public debt of France is per head of population more than one-third greater than that of England, Austria, or Italy, and three times as great as that of Germany, and calls this a low estimate. He winds up by saying: "In spite of all these devices [imperfect statements of liability] of our budget, although we have been constantly taking pains to conceal its real amount by special accounts or occult methods (*quoique nous ayons eu une préoccupation constante d'en dissimuler, par des caisses spéciales ou des expédients occultes, la grosseur réelle*), it is, nevertheless, plain, from all the testimony, that the French budget largely (*d'une façon considérable*) surpasses in all its principal features the budgets of the other six great States of Europe. *This situation,*" he adds, "*cannot last without, in the long run, seriously affecting the national vitality* (*sans que la vitalité nationale à la longue en soit profondément atteinte*)." It will be seen that this is a far more serious charge than the one we have ascribed to him, of thinking a "Treasury collapse of some kind not far away." If the latter be "words of treason," what must the former be? And let us add that there could not be, to our minds, a stronger illustration of the risky condition of French finances than the fact that a Frenchman of M. Reinach's intelligence thinks it treasonable to express alarm about them. Our assertion about what other "shrewd financial heads" thought of the situation was possibly indiscreet, because it was based on private information, which is—of course, without meaning to reflect in any way on M. Reinach's good faith—more valuable to us than his general denial can possibly be.

As to the condition of popular sentiment about Gen. Boulanger, that is, of course, a matter of opinion about which it is useless to bandy contradictions. All we can say is, that our view of it is shared by hundreds of excellent political observers, both in France and in foreign countries. That Gen. Boulanger himself shares it, may fairly be inferred from the

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remarkable sentence in his farewell order to the army, in which he called attention to the fact that in going out of office he was "setting an example of both republican and military discipline." The only possible construction at all creditable to his intelligence one can place on this is, that under the circumstances less patriotic men than he might have felt justified in staying in office, even if the President or his colleagues wished him to go.

We may add in conclusion that we did not mean by the phrase "a Treasury collapse of some kind," the total repudiation of the public debt, as M. Reinach seems to imagine. There might be many a collapse damaging to French credit and humiliating to French pride before that pass was reached. In fact, some financiers would call attempts to conceal the real amount of the debt by cooked accounts, such as M. Leroy-Beaulieu describes, a collapse of a very painful nature. But the remedy never can be applied as long as earnest talk about the evil is considered traitorous or even unpatriotic.—ED. NATION.]

THE QUESTION OF CHURCH UNION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The only way a Protestant can experience the delights of the doctrine of infallibility is by having an infallible newspaper on which he wholly leans, and in which he heartily believes.

Such has been my belief in the *Nation* from the time when, as a college boy, I subscribed for it, since which time I have never been without it. When it has ruthlessly criticised my own books as they have appeared one by one, I have fallen back upon the wisdom of Irving's character in 'Sleepy Hollow,' Ichabod Crane, who, when he whipped the boys in his school, invariably remarked that they would thank him for that afternoon's performance the longest day they lived.

I have never addressed a letter to my lifelong friend, the *Nation*, through all these years until to-day, when, in all deference to the doctrine of editorial infallibility, I venture to suggest two or three fallacies in your editorial of June 9 on "The Question of Church Union."

First of all, no one enlisting in this enterprise of church unity expects that it is going to be a mere matter of ninety days, as Mr. Seward said of the War of the Rebellion. Obstacles are to be encountered; prejudices are to be aroused; the dark shadows of ecclesiastical and theological bias must be awakened. Our Lord said of the religion which he came to establish, "I come not to send peace but a sword." A movement like this drives men back to their definitions, and clearness of thought comes with clearness of definition. Men must ask to day what they mean by the church, and what they mean by church unity. Is it the mediæval idea of hierarchical organization, or the practical American idea of a national Federation?

Secondly, the Congress of Churches has held no meeting this year, simply because already the manufacture of the material of church unity has exceeded the available demand. We do not want to go on talking generalities when we are wide of the vital question before the house. Each church must settle its own details. The Congregationalists are driven back to the question of the authority of their mission work, or the problem of centralization cropping out in their polity. The Episcopal church is divided about the problem of its change of name. The prophetic sword has already pierced the fabric of the past, but peace will come after the sword thrusts of the immediate present.

Thirdly, no meeting of the Congress of Churches was held this year for another reason. It was hoped that something definite and practical could be accomplished in the matter of Christian unity by the churches of our towns and villages meeting together for united service during Holy Week, and especially upon Good Friday. This was accomplished, and now, in addition to the theory of Christian federation, a practical precedent has been established in the matter of keeping the Christian year, which will serve for the second step forward when the time for the next meeting comes.

The chief fallacy of the editorial in the number of June 9, however, consists in this—that, as a matter of fact, it is the town which is the practical centre of Christian unity, and not the city. Churches and ministers are too busy, in their endless routine and in their crowded city life, to stop to see how this problem of unity can become practical. This movement of the Congress of Churches began in the felt needs of town life, and has been carried on by the convictions of many Christian workers who live in country, not city, life. Already in half-a-dozen towns in Massachusetts, steps have been taken towards realizing practical unity by keeping Holy Week as a Christian town—taking as the norm of unity the local church in a place, such as "the church which is in Corinth," or "the church which is in Amherst."

To sum up, then, the points in this case, we may say:

(1) The question of church union means the work of a generation, not the work of a day.

(2) The question of church union drives men back to their definitions, and inevitably draws the sword of discussion first, before peace comes.

(3) The question of church union is one in which we must allow plenty of time and space and charity, and the happening of the unexpected, for the settlement of lesser local details.

(4) As a matter of fact, it is city life, with its endless routine and its lack of bird's-eye view and perspective, which has, up to this point, presented the chief obstacles to the practical realization of Christian unity—not "the sweeping social revolution" which you seem to think would follow were church unity realized in the country.

I write thus as a country minister, and can name several towns in Massachusetts where the effort to realize practical church unity has been tried without incurring any "sweeping social revolution."—Very sincerely yours,

WM. WILBERFORCE NEWTON.

PITTSFIELD, MASS., June 23, 1887.

AN IMPORTANT ELEMENT OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A paragraph in your last number begins with these words: "We doubt if the people of this city realize fully the importance of the experiment which Mayor Hewitt is making in the City Hall." As this goes to the root of one of the strongest of my political hobbies, I ask your indulgence for a moment. If it should appear out of place for me to discuss New York city politics, you will perhaps remember that the experiments in government in every city are of the deepest and most direct interest to all the rest, and that New York is the most central and the most important of all.

New York and Brooklyn have taken a strong lead in the right direction in giving greater power to the Mayor, and especially in taking away from the Aldermen the right of confirming his appointments; and it seems as if the drift of opinion was towards a still further extension of these powers. But while this system offers great advantages with a good Mayor, it involves serious risk with a bad one, and there is danger of losing sight of that which is the safeguard against bad and the encouragement in good use of power—the public enforcement of responsibility. I believe that the government of Brooklyn by Mayor Low was very satisfactory to the best citizens, but the mass of the people knew very little about it; and, perhaps for that very reason, he has a successor who is, I presume, much less satisfactory, while silence, so far as I can learn, has settled over the whole arena.

Perhaps the purest form of government in this country is the New England town-meeting. This may be true of other local governments, but I speak of that which I know best. The town government may sometimes be extravagant and sometimes foolish, but anything like systematic corruption or dishonesty among town officials is extremely rare. The reason is, that the whole responsibility for administration rests with the officials, and mainly with the selectmen. The town meeting assembles once or twice a year, the selectmen and officials being present; and individuals bring forward their grievances and discuss the conduct of their agents in their presence and before the company. The test is so severe that none but honest men can stand it.

When the town becomes so large that the meeting is too cumbrous, relief is sought in the form of the representative council of a city. In theory, this council should do the same thing as the town-meeting—that is, keep the people fully informed of the character and actions of their responsible servants. In practice, the council, by its system of committees, and by excluding the executive officials from its sessions and depriving them of all voice and initiative, gets hold of executive power, breaks up and diffuses responsibility, and carefully covers up not only its own tracks, but those of the executive power. In restoring power to the executive, the true function and power of the council should be kept in view. If a body of one or two hundred men from all New York city were to meet, say once a month, and if the Mayor and the chief officials were to appear before this body in public session; if the body were forbidden by law to interfere with the executive power, but limited to criticism and to the voting of money upon executive proposal—or, in other words, to a veto—then the character and actions of the officials would speedily and fully become known to the whole city, and then for the first time we should have the right to blame the people if things went wrong.

There is a curious symptom of the dim consciousness of this want in the provision which is running the rounds of the various city charters, that the Mayor shall at stated times call the various officials together for consultation. But they may consult just as little or just as much as they please. They are all interested on one side. Their tendency, like that of all officials, even if honest, is not to waste time on the public—to do their work rather than talk about it. It is not at all the same thing as to have a body whose interest lies in seeing that the public are well informed.

G. B.

BOSTON, June 25, 1887.

SENATOR HOAR OR CITIZEN HOAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the current issue of your paper I have read with great surprise an extract from the address of welcome delivered by Senator Hoar to the R. E. Lee Camp of Confederate Veterans upon their reception at Faneuil Hall. I cannot suppose that you invented or even "edited" the speech, which I therefore assume was delivered.

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It is expressed in terse and elegant English, and it expresses the best thought of the time as to the war which "has led to the indissolubility of the American Union and the universality of American freedom."

But suppose this deliverance had been made, not by a Massachusetts Senator who, in his official capacity, gives a pet place in his wardrobe to the bloody shirt, but by a man, of what distinction soever, either in civil council or in loyal military service, who by political affiliation was a Democrat or by non-affiliation was a Mugwump—what then? Would it not have been accounted little short of treason, and would not he have been pilloried as a rebel at heart?

"Is it love the lying's for?" I ask with Hervé Riel; for there is a juggle with the truth somewhere. Is it Senator Hoar or Citizen Hoar, Senator Sherman or Citizen Sherman, who is speaking; or is Mr. Facing both-ways the best American type? JOSEPH PARRISH.

PHILADELPHIA, June 23, 1887.

THE FIRE AT THE OPÉRA COMIQUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the account of the burning of the Opéra Comique printed on page 462 of your issue of June 2, it is said, ". . . the whole stage was immediately enveloped in flames. The fire soon spread to the rest of the house, *although the iron curtain was lowered.*"

If uncorrected, this statement would tend to spread the belief that an iron curtain affords no protection to the audience of a theatre in which it is used. In fact, no attempt seems to have been made, on the occasion in question, to lower the iron curtain; at any rate, it was *not* lowered.

L. E. O.

PARIS, June 14, 1887.

AMERICAN ANCESTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In consequence of the notices in the *Nation*, both in December last and more recently in your review of our Albany volume, we are receiving a very large number of communications regarding our work. Will you, therefore, allow us to state through the same widely circulated medium that, while our *local series* merely publish lineages of persons residing in certain localities, our *standard series* will publish lineages sent from any part of our United States, and thus place on record for all time the ancestry of any living American whose ancestor resided in America at the time of the Revolution?—Yours respectfully, JOEL MUNSELL'S SONS.

ALBANY, N. Y., June 25, 1887.

Notes.

TICKNOR & CO., Boston, publish immediately 'Penelope's Suitors,' a story of the old Colony days, by Edwin Lassetter Bynner; and 'Home Sanitation: a Manual for Housekeepers,' edited by Ellen H. Richards and Marion Talbot.

Mr. Frank D. Millet, the well-known artist, has translated into English Count Leo Tolstoi's powerful work entitled 'Scenes from the Siege of Sebastopol.' His intimate knowledge of the Russian people and Russian life should be a guarantee of his success in this task. The translation is introduced by a chapter on Tolstoi from the pen of W. D. Howells, and the book, which contains a portrait of the author, will be shortly issued by Harper & Brothers. They announce also 'Horsemanship for Women,' by Mr. Theodore H. Mead, with forty-one illustrations by Gray-Parker.

The Memoirs of the Margravine of Baireuth, eldest daughter of Frederick William I. of Prussia, translated by the Princess Christian, will be published in this country by Scribner & Welford.

The Worthington Co. will be the American publishers of Swinburne's 'Select Poems.'

'The Republic of the Future,' a satirical anti-Socialistic brochure by Mrs. Anna Bowman Dodd, is announced by Cassell & Co.

Prof. Wm. G. Hale's address before the recent meeting of the Classical and High-School Teachers' Association of New England, entitled 'Aims and Methods of Classical Study,' is in the press of Ginn & Co.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce 'The Bible History,' in six volumes, by Alfred Edersheim, D.D., author of 'The Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah.' Also, an edition of the 'Memorials of William E. Dodge,' the first edition of which was printed for private distribution.

'The Life and Times of Jesus, as related by Thomas Didymus,' by James Freeman Clarke, just published by Lee & Shepard of Boston, is a reissue of a book which appeared in 1881 with the title 'The Legend of Thomas Didymus, the Jewish Sceptic.' No notice is given in the book of the fact of its having formerly appeared with a different title.

We have already referred to the technical part of Prof. Angelo Heilprin's report on the expedition undertaken by the Wagner Institute of Philadelphia, with the assistance of Mr. Joseph Willcox, to southwest Florida during the winter of 1885-86. The complete report is now issued, with an introduction by Dr. Leidy, a narrative of the journey by Prof. Heilprin, some additional descriptions of new species, and eighteen plates of new fossils, etc., made by an apparently new phototypic and rather murky process called the Levytype. The report will be of much value to all interested in the geology and palæontology of the region, and is creditable alike to the Wagner Institute and to the exertions of Messrs. Heilprin and Willcox.

Mr. W. J. Loftie's literary-historical 'Windsor Castle,' which, after running through the *Portfolio*, appeared in book form some two years ago, was originally written in a vein of rather effusive "loyalty." To give the book a "Jubilee Edition" was therefore both natural and easy, and this Macmillan & Co. have just done. Bidding goodbye to the *Portfolio* form, which had been determined by etchings now abandoned, the publishers have chosen a duodecimo of fair dimensions, scarlet-covered, illustrated with numerous cuts in the text, and with a phototype copy of Boëhm's sitting statue of the Queen for a frontispiece. The print is large, and the price much below that of the larger edition.

An opposite policy has been pursued by Macmillan & Co. in the case of the "Victoria Edition" of Shakspere's works. Here a smaller, one-volume edition, the "Globe," with the text of W. G. Clark and W. Aldis Wright, has been expanded into three volumes, 12mo—the Comedies in the first, the Histories in the second, and the Tragedies and Poems in the third. A simple binding in green cloth has been given them. The page is in double columns, and the letter-press is clear, if compact. There are no introductions or notes, the "Globe" having had none. The price is wonderfully cheap, and would hardly have been possible before the Victorian era.

We commend, as we have done their predecessors, the latest volumes, xiii to xvi, in the Library Edition of the Waverley Novels (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). They are, in order, 'The Pirate,' 'The Fortunes of Nigel,' 'Peveril of the Peak,' and 'Quentin Durward.' The large and liberal style of this edition makes it very attractive to eyes that admire fine typography, or need to be favored with print that can safely be read by candlelight.

Prof. Franklin B. Dexter's 'Sketch of the History of Yale University' (Henry Holt & Co.) is a thin, neatly-printed volume of about 100 pages, compactly setting forth what needs to be known, in due sequence to the present administration. Those who wish for detail on the earlier periods can find it in Prof. Dexter's 'Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College,' of which the first volume appeared two years ago and the second is in preparation. Other sources are mentioned in the short bibliography which succeeds the curious statistics that follow the main narrative. What is true of Yale, that the graduates bearing the name of Smith lead in number, with Williamses in the second place, is true also of Harvard and perhaps of some other colleges.

"The Gentleman's Magazine Library, being a classified collection of the chief contents of the *Gentleman's Magazine* from 1731 to 1868, edited by George Laurence Gomme, F.S.A." (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has reached Part 1 of 'Romano-British Remains,' an octavo volume of 297 pages. It contains the accounts of local discoveries in England in the several counties, arranged alphabetically, as far as Somersetshire. The remaining counties of England, together with Wales and Scotland, stations, roads, etc., notes and index, are reserved for Part 2. This most useful compilation is introduced by a discussion by Mr. Gomme, in twenty-one pages, of the character of the Roman occupation of Britain, and the classification of the remains. Mr. Gomme takes issue with Mr. Coote and Mr. Seebohm on the question of the Romans in Britain, holding that their occupation was exclusively military: "that the Roman conquerors found the country occupied by tribes of more or less barbarous people, and they left it with the tribal organization still practically unbroken." This view, arrived at by the examination of classical and other sources of knowledge, appears to him to be sustained by the evidence of archæology. Mr. Seebohm's argument from the fact that "our modern villages are very often on these old Roman, and sometimes probably pre-Roman sites," he holds to be neutralized by the facts that the Saxon cultivator often turned "the site of the Roman villa into arable lands," and "that Roman villas by no means implied Roman villages; that for the instances which Mr. Seebohm advances where continuity in the occupation of one site may be shown by archæology, there are innumerable instances where archæology shows no such continuity."

There comes to us the first number of *Spelling*, "a magazine devoted to the simplification of English orthografy" (Boston: Library Bureau; London: Trübner & Co.). It is dated May, 1887. "Everything," we read, "that practically concerns spelling, and is wurth printing, wil be welcum to the pages of this periodical. The Spelling Reform Association, whose policy we shal follow, refers all theoretical and scientific alfabetic questions to the experts of the Philological Association. We shal set forth the views of the filologists. Articls in dissent from these views wil be admitted, and wil be answerd." But the main object of this periodical is to popularize the reform. As our extract shows, the (partially) amended orthography is employed.

The June number of the *Antiquary* contains several interesting papers, but none of special importance, except the conclusion of Prof. Conway's 'Exercitium super Pater noster.' This article gives much interesting information with regard to early printing, and arrives at the conclusion that the book in question was printed before 1440. Of "Old Storied Houses" we have Harvington Hall in Worcestershire; of "London Theatres," Whitefriars. "The Early Custody of Domesday Book," by J. H. Round, is directed

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against the opinion of Hubert Hall, that this document, from about 1108, was preserved at Westminster; the article is to be continued. Other articles of interest are on Kentish neolithic implements, the Maltese nobility, the earthquake at Lisbon, and the Selden Society.

The *Magazine of American History* for July prints two of the papers read at the recent sessions of the American Historical Association in Boston. The more important of the two is that of President Winsor, on the "Manuscript Sources of American History—the Conspicuous Collections Extant," an extremely valuable indication for the student, and, we hope it may prove, an incentive to families which still preserve their own archives, of national moment, either to put them in the nation's custody or to insure them against destruction—following the example of the Adamses. Dr. A. B. Hart, instructor in history in Harvard, writes with a light touch the "Biography of a River and Harbor Bill," namely, that of 1887, which the President killed by not signing. This is a useful piece of work, and we wish it might have a circulation beyond the readers of the *Magazine*.

The relation between the postal rates on books and the sphere of the circulating libraries is not often considered; but the sixty-sixth annual report of the Directors of the Mercantile Library of this city favors the movement, which failed at the last session of Congress, to get a lower rate, inasmuch as it would enable this library to supply a demand for books from parts of the country where no library exists. In the same report we read: "It has been observed that as the number of cheap and poorly printed books multiply, the tastes of our readers become more fastidious and exacting. Books printed before the present glut of cheap literature, the typography of which appeared to be perfectly satisfactory at the time they were issued, are now refused, and editions with more legible texts demanded. As has frequently been the case, these books have not been issued in any other form; therefore it has not been possible for us to comply with the demands of some of our readers."

The twentieth annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology is one of the most interesting of the series, particularly in the minute account, by Prof. Putnam, of the examination of mounds in the valley of the Little Miami River, Ohio, last fall. The Museum is in urgent need of enlargement, the plans for which are already under way.

It seems a little like the introduction of opéra-bouffe into real life when the Hydrographic Office announces, with all seriousness, that two quarts of oil an hour is sufficient to prevent much damage to ships in heavy seas. Mineral oils are said not to be so effective as vegetable or animal. The best result is obtained in deep water; but the use of oil is also recommended in a surf or where water is breaking on a bar.

Overruling a Scotch court, the House of Lords has sustained Dr. Caird, Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow, in his contention that he has a right of property in his lectures, as against students who report them for sale, and publishers who buy and print them. The question was a somewhat knotty one.

The fifth to ninth parts of Richard Andree's 'Allgemeiner Handatlas' (second edition) have been received by Westermann & Co. The maps are admirably executed, and present a good deal of novelty in the selection. Germany, of course, is particularly well served, and shown in almost every aspect, from physical conformation to language, religions, and mean temperature. Especially noteworthy in Europe is the map of the Balkan Peninsula, which we must still regard as a war-map of the future. Its fellow in that respect is the map of Central Asia and Further India, showing Russia's points of contact with British India through Afghanistan, and with China. Another useful Asiatic map embraces Eastern China and Corea. Germans have a special but not exclusive interest in the map of New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago, for comparison with which in area a map of Southwestern Germany, on the same scale, is annexed. We see the spreading of Germany, also, in the special map of German East Africa, which includes the great equatorial Nile lakes and Tanganyika. Very good to have, too, is the general map of Northeast Africa, whose compass takes in the territory from the Persian Gulf to the Upper Congo, and from Athens to the southern shore of the Victoria Nyanza. There is a fine map of the whole continent of Africa, with the international stakings-out called States, and a large and full one of Egypt. The maps of North America, the United States as a whole, and the Pacific States group, recommend this atlas to American buyers.

Dr. Theodor Barth has published (No. 1, 8 of the Popular Questions of the Day, *Volkswirthschaftliche Zeitfragen*, Berlin: Simion), in a modest pamphlet of thirty-one pages, under the title of 'Amerikanisches Wirthschaftsleben,' a summary of a lecture first printed in his journal, the Berlin *Nation*, on his impressions of America. As a Liberal member of the German Reichstag, as an experienced administrative officer in Bremen, where the German population stands in close commercial relations with America, and as the editor of a leading organ of anti-Bismarckian ideas, commercial, financial, and political, Dr. Barth is admirably fitted to interpret American economical opinions to his own countrymen. He regrets that American economists have not given more attention to the study of local prices, and thus made the groundwork for a better knowledge of home affairs, and deplores the time spent in threshing out the old truths of European and especially English writers. The Americans, with their wealth of endowments, ought to be able to correct the common errors still too prevalent abroad of the conditions of life in the United States. The publications of the Berlin Economical Society, of which Dr. Barth's pamphlet is the latest number, are well worth noting. Among its earlier issues are papers on American Harvests, by F. Kapp, on the Results of American Competition in Europe, by A. von Totis, and on a variety of topics, touching land, labor, wages, socialism, pauperism, education, discussed by men of recognized authority.

The tenth volume of the 'Catalogue général de la librairie française depuis 1840,' by Otto Lorenz (Paris: Lorenz; Boston: Schoenhof), is now in course of publication. We have already had occasion to notice the first numbers of the supplementary volumes (ix and x) which will complete the work to the end of 1885. The fascicule of nearly 400 large 8vo pages, just published, ends near the beginning of the letter P.

The "Bibliothèque Patriotique et Républicaine" (Paris: L. Boulanger; Boston: Schoenhof) is to be selected in a spirit diametrically opposed to that which presides over the choice in the "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Populaire," the similar Catholic publication, though both will have much common ground, as Molière, Corneille, and Racine already appear in each. The cover, as well as the name, of this newly started collection, which takes as its sub-title 'Les Livres du Peuple,' unmistakably indicates its object. Liberty is shown resting her right foot upon a tiara, and her left hand upon a slab on which are inscribed the words, "Les droits de l'homme." This series, like its fellow, is published at ten centimes a number. As yet only the first twenty numbers have been announced. The last we have seen, the tenth, is a very good selection from M. Jules Claretie's 'Les Derniers Montagnards.' Previously, two of M. Charles Floquet's speeches made up a volume, notably the one called "Le Cléricalisme,' delivered at Lyons in 1880.

An expedition in charge of Prof. David P. Todd of Amherst College, sent out under the auspices of the National Academy of Sciences, and of Prof. Simon Newcomb, Superintendent of the Nautical Almanac, to observe the total eclipse of the sun in Japan, is now on its way across the Pacific in the *Abyssinia*, the first steamer of the line to Yokohama newly established by the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. On landing, about July 5, the party will proceed at once to Tokio, where, upon conference with the officers of the Japanese Meteorological Service, the precise point of observation will be determined. This is expected to be somewhere in the region within a hundred miles to the north and west of Tokio, the capital itself lying just outside the path of total eclipse. The work of the party will be photographic in the main, the Observatory of Harvard College coöperating in the specialized research upon the sun's corona. On the invitation of Prof. Todd, William J. Holland, Ph.D., the distinguished entomologist, is attached to the party, and will report upon the natural history of the expedition.

—*Scribner's* opens its second volume with an admirable number, and yet the high grade of its articles is so evenly sustained, and their interest is so equal, that one does not at once realize the excellence of this magazine. In the present issue, the portrait of Napoleon which serves as a frontispiece introduces a second series of selections from Mr. Ropes's cabinet of prints illustrating the times of the Empire, and, by its heavier and materialized expression, prepares us for the second period of Bonaparte's career, which is rapidly sketched. All these later portraits are indicative of a gross change from the noble youthfulness of the early ones, and, though power remains, charm has faded from the features. The attractive face of Wolfe, and the characteristic English vigor and manliness of Wellington's profile, together with some fine caricatures, give further distinction to one of the best of portrait articles. Thackeray's letters naturally stand first in literary interest, and in this last instalment there is no flagging; one feels almost a friendly obligation to the Brookfields for being admitted to peruse such human memorials of a great man's private life, so pleasant in themselves, and more charming for what they reveal of the author's self. The letters of Eliza Southgate Bowne, written in her girlhood eighty years ago, promise some interior views of old New York; but the first bundle of them is confined to the fashion of Portland, Salem, and Boston, to a Saratoga tour with the Derbys, and her own wedding journey. Very bright they are, and no doubt full of interest to maidens of the Newport era and the relics of the old American families. Dr. Sargent opens the number with an exposition of his methods of measuring the body and charting the data so as to determine the variation of any example from the normal; and though the article is only preparatory, his suggestions are of the highest practical value to athletic associations and all interested in physical development. In his own phraseology, he is opening a chapter in a new science, anthropometry, in the utility of which he expresses great confidence. We must find space to mention, also, Mr. W. C. Brownell's very careful article upon the national character of the French, which is of an enlightening kind, though burdened in its earlier portion by a strange mixture of sociology, architecture, and nationalities. We like his observation and his reasoning on it far better than his philosophizing

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about history. The fiction is plentiful and entertaining.

—*Harper's* for July keeps even closer to the material facts of the age than is its custom. It presents little more than information in its pages, if one excepts its not remarkably imaginative fiction; and the interest which attaches to the number is that which belongs to facts simply as such. The processes which a book is put through in the making are the subject of its leading article, and are exhaustively described and well illustrated. The life of the cadets at West Point is treated with similar thoroughness, and gives occasion for some effective cuts; and "A Central Soudan Town" is the title of the third body-article, which also reaches the same high standard of execution in the literature of popular instruction. The perennial topic of the New South is utilized for a paper of mingled travel and fiction of the sort in which Mr. Warner's "Their Pilgrimage" was the pioneer; but it takes a peculiar talent to reconcile the diverse interests, and in this particular case the fiction is as transparent a fraud on the reader as were the children's moral stories of a generation ago. Mr. Warner is not at his best in his "Mexican Notes," which afford another chapter of facts. There is variety enough in this list, but the informing spirit and method of it are singularly monotonous; the intellectual life it represents is one of unrelieved materialism, and were it not for the very slight exception of Dr. Ely's paper on corporations, one would be forced to say that thought has no place in the body of this number.

—Prof. Conrad of Halle, in a recent series of articles on the evils of a cultured proletariat, undertakes to show that the danger to be apprehended from this source is much more formidable than any to be feared from an ignorant proletariat. It appears that the number of university students in Germany, which, twenty years ago, was 13,400, had risen to 17,800 ten years ago, and is now 28,000; during the last five years the number of students has increased twenty-six per cent., while the increase of population was only five per cent. It is shown by undoubted statistics that all the professions and trades which demand special training are becoming greatly overcrowded, and that a large and constantly increasing number of men who, at the sacrifice of not a few of the best years of their life, and considerable expense, have acquired a classical education, and have given evidence of ability, are forced to wait for years before they can obtain suitable positions. The inevitable consequence of this state of things, says Conrad, is a growing discontent among these classes, often stimulated by the pressure of actual need, and a lamentable disinclination to form family relations. Another consequence is the frequent abandonment of the profession for which a man has been trained, and the attempt to begin life over again in a new calling—a change involving the loss of years of training. Many, again, resort to emigration, and thus Germany loses some of her most promising sons, while those who remain form an element of discontent, and are only too ready to swell the ranks of the socialistic agitators. It is admitted that this overcrowding and competition has resulted in a demand for higher qualifications for all positions of responsibility, but this is considered a very insufficient compensation for the evil consequences. One of the chief causes of this condition of things is said to be the current prejudice in favor of intellectual as compared with manual labor—a prejudice which Conrad looks upon as a natural consequence of the highly developed school system, together with the strong bias towards classical culture, which, in Germany, secures for its possessor a higher degree of respect and social standing than is the case in any other country. Not only is a knowledge of Latin required in almost all civil-service positions, but it is said to be difficult for a man who does not possess a classical training to obtain due recognition of his abilities in any profession. Hence the necessity which parents feel of sending their children to the gymnasium, if they wish them to enter one of the learned professions.

—The course in the gymnasium is criticised as requiring too long a time, and it is shown that in 1885 51 per cent. of the *Abiturienten*, or pupils who had completed the gymnasium course, were over twenty years of age, and 27 per cent. were over twenty-one. The complaint is also made that in these schools too much stress is laid upon abstract mental work, so that not only are habits of observation not formed, but the faculty of observing closely is almost lost, while the entire attention of the pupil is drawn away from practical objects and directed towards intellectual culture. It may be well enough for the rich to educate their sons in this manner, but for the average man, who has to make his own fight for existence under many disadvantages, such an education is more hurtful than helpful. It enlarges the number of his daily wants, and if the means of satisfying these be lacking, the result is apt to be restlessness, discontent, and a distaste for the routine of business or industrial life. Moreover, many youths are carried through the gymnasium from class to class and pushed on to the university who possess no real desire or special aptitude for a scholarly life. For this the custom, which so largely obtains in German universities, of bestowing stipends upon needy students is in great measure responsible. It should be said that these stipends come from four different sources—the national exchequer, the university funds, city and school scholarships, and family or other private scholarships. The last class may be left out of the question, as they stand upon a different footing from the others. From the first two sources over $125,000 was distributed among German students in the year 1885-6, and it is estimated that from the third source nearly the same amount was expended, making in all about $250,000 bestowed annually in this way. The difficulty of obtaining exact information as to the number of students thus aided is very great, hence only an approximate estimate of their number can be formed. Judging, however, from the statistics available, it is safe to say that more than 25 per cent. of the German students are in receipt of more or less support from public funds. It is said that in cities where this system of stipends or scholarships is fully developed, it is often easier for a mechanic to help his son to a parsonage than to a position as a master mechanic; and every year large numbers of needy students, provided with letters of recommendation, are sent up to the universities, which find themselves obliged to provide for the needs of these beneficiaries without any certainty of bestowing their aid upon worthy recipients.

—M. Octave Uzanne's new essay on modern book-binding, 'La Reliure Moderne' (Paris: Rouveyre; New York: F. W. Christern), appears in a sumptuous quarto with sixty Dujardin photogravures, probably the best display of beautifully bound books ever contained in a single volume, and certainly the most novel and original, not to say eccentric. No doubt M. Uzanne himself would be the first to acknowledge that these engravings are of greater interest and of more importance than the characteristically rambling essays which they accompany—we were about to say illustrate, but this is exactly what they fail to do, as there is scarcely the slightest connection between the text and the plates. The text consists of five lively little essays on historic book-binding and those who have written about it, on the bibliophiles of to-day and the decoration of their books, on full bindings, on half bindings, and on fancy bindings. In the main M. Uzanne's book is a plea for unconventionality and freer fantasy. He protests against the slavish imitation of the great binders of the past, and advocates a more modern development of the art. He suggests the employment of a wider range of materials than those to be found in ordinary binders' shops; he advocates the use of old brocades, of Oriental stuffs, of Japanese leather-papers, and of the skins of animals not habitually employed. He urges a unity between cover and contents. In every binding there should be an appropriateness to the book or its author or its subject. From M. Uzanne's pages we should be inclined to think that alligator and seal bindings are almost unknown in France, and that tree-calf—a beautiful but frail binding—is almost forgotten there. We have not space to give the attention to the plates that they deserve. We may note only the best bit of irony in binding we have ever seen. There is an engraving here of M. Philippe Burty's copy of 'Napoléon le Petit,' bound in morocco, with a deep panel on one side, in which there is set one of the embroidered bees from the throne of Napoleon III., taken from the Tuileries after Sedan.

—The Nahuatl Dictionary of Rémi Siméon is a recent literary achievement of such vast labor and importance that a short review can hardly do justice to it. The author has endeavored to gather into one volume all the terms and proper nouns of the literary Mexican language found in the earlier dictionaries, histories, prayer-books, translations, and other Aztec texts. He took as a base to work upon the second edition (1571) of A. de Molina's Mexican Dictionary, as being the only comprehensive collection of words from the period when Aztec was still spoken in its purity, and thus succeeded in gathering about 27,000 items. Wherever it could be done with safety, the terms of the language have been reduced to their radicals or bases; of the verbs, the preterit and sometimes the future forms are indicated, thus showing whether the verb is construed with the personal (*te*) or the inanimate-object particle (*tla*), or with both. In the case of the nouns, the author has been careful to mention the forms of the plural, which is often double; for their better elucidation, an array of phrases and sentences is often added to words having many meanings. The definitions are well selected and to the point, and the authorities for statements are added whenever it seemed desirable to refer to them. From Siméon's list of those consulted, it would seem as if the vulgar Aztec language of the present day had been excluded from the book, though we have found no allusion to this circumstance. The introduction contains a grammar of the early Aztec, composed after that of Andrea de Olmos, the oldest but substantially accurate grammar of this Indian language (1547), which had been previously edited by M. Siméon. The sounds of the language are not described with all the precision desirable—a too common fault in similar works. Another part of the introduction reproduces the classification of all the Indian tongues spoken in the Mexican States from Pimentel's 'Cuadro' (1865), a work itself based upon Orozco y Berra. This classification is so full of evident errors that its presence in this volume can but be deeply regretted. The Dictionary was printed at the expense of the French Government at the "Imprimerie Nationale," and forms a beautiful large quarto volume of nearly eight hundred pages. Thus far only the Nahuatl-French part has been published; whether a French-Nahuatl part is contemplated or not, we have not learned.

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RECENT RAILWAY PUBLICATIONS.

Railway Practice: Its Principles and Suggested Reforms Reviewed. By E. Porter Alexander. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

Railway Rates, English and Foreign. By J. Grierson, General Manager of the Great Western Railway. London: Edward Stanford. 1886.

Railway Problems: An Inquiry into the Economic Conditions of Railway Working in Different Countries. By J. S. Jeans. London; Longmans. 1887.

The Handling of Railway Supplies: Their Purchase and Disposition. By Marshall M. Kirkman. Chicago: Charles N. Triviss. 1887.

THE growth of this kind of railroad literature in the last two years is something remarkable. Previous to this time, books on railroad administration were rare, and the few that existed were of a somewhat technical character. They dealt either with railroad engineering, railroad law, or the minor details of railroad operation. To-day, however, we have treatises on railroad economy in the broader sense; on the earnings and expenditures of railroads in their relation to the interests of the general public.

Gen. Alexander's book is a short one, but it contains no lack of vigorous and useful matter. He deals with the principles which govern railroad rates; and, unlike many of those who have written on this subject, he speaks from practical experience. He first describes at some length the actual scheme of rates which prevails in the United States; the way in which competitive and non-competitive points are treated; and the systems adopted by various traffic associations in forming their schedules of charge. His extracts from the rate-book of the trunk lines give an excellent idea of how railroad tariffs look. Most persons who read his pages for the first time will be astonished to find how small a proportion of our older tariffs violated the "long-and-short-haul" principle. In one respect Gen. Alexander's presentation of the case is too favorable for the railroads. A reader who should take his ideas from this book alone, would not imagine how largely the practice of granting special rates had been abused. He would overestimate the importance of the tariff schedule and underestimate the deviations from it. But almost every one who reads this book will read some other book that falls into the opposite error, and the one will fairly enough offset the other.

Gen. Alexander next criticises proposed plans of railway reform developed by Prof. Ely and Mr. Hudson. He shows the difficulties involved in Mr. Ely's plan of State control, not merely as a matter of administration, but as a matter of political corruption; pointing out that the very dangers of which Mr. Ely complains to-day would be aggravated rather than lessened by a system of State ownership. Against Mr. Hudson's plan, by which the carriers were to be separate from the railroads, he brings up the old objections which occur to every railroad man, and a new one which is worth noticing:

"It must ever remain impossible," he says, "for many rival carriers to *occupy the same depots and make up their trains with shifting engines in the same yard.* Each carrier must have his own yards and terminal facilities. But available space for such facilities in our large cities can only be had at enormous expense. A few large transportation companies would speedily be formed who would monopolize the entire transportation business of the country. Small carriers could not possibly gain or maintain a footing against them. And the large companies would speedily unite and pool or divide territory. If Mr. Hudson had started out to devise a plan by which the transportation interests of the United States could be most rapidly consolidated into the most complete and irresponsible monopoly possible, he could not have suggested anything half so certain and speedy of operation as what he has suggested to bring about the very opposite result."

Mr. Grierson's book does for England on a somewhat larger scale what Gen. Alexander does for America. That is to say, it takes specific instances of English railroad tariffs and defends them against their critics. The book is not exactly of a kind to command general interest—at any rate, outside of England—but it is extremely good in its way. In the recent Parliamentary investigations, Mr. Grierson has habitually presented the general case for the English railroads very much as it has been done by Mr. Blanchard or Mr. Fink in the United States. He therefore writes as an advocate, though by no means as an extremist. There is nothing particularly new in his conclusions, but the facts by which he supports them are fresh and often highly instructive. To most American readers the chief interest will lie in seeing how the long-and-short-haul difficulty which is now perplexing the Inter-State Commerce Commission has come up in nearly the same form and extent in England and on the continent of Europe. The selections from English and Continental tariffs, though made with a view to refute a pamphlet of Sir Bernhard Samuelson, are well chosen and extremely convenient. We know of no other place where this material is so fairly presented to the English reader.

Mr. Jeans's book is disappointing. It is handsomely got up, and the general scheme looks interesting. But the writer is quite incompetent to deal with the subject; and, what is still more surprising in a professed statistician, he is careless in the use of figures. A few examples will suffice: On page 102 he gives the average earnings of the United States railroads per train mile in 1883 as eight shillings. They actually were only about two-thirds of this sum, and any one at all familiar with the facts of the case would have seen that this was an error. In fact, Mr. Jeans himself in one place in his book gives substantially the right figures; but he habitually uses the wrong one as a basis of his reasoning, and apparently does not notice the inconsistency. This mistake, however, shows in worse colors when we attempt to see how it arose. The earnings per train mile are, of course, determined by dividing the gross traffic earnings by the total train mileage. Now, Mr. Jeans's figure for the gross earnings is somewhat wrong, being a little too high. His figure for the train mileage is so absolutely wrong that it is impossible even to guess what he based it on. And, finally, if we divide his dividend by his divisor, we do not get his quotient. He seems to have acted on the principle that bad reasoning from bad premises might bring out a good result.

Examples might be multiplied almost indefinitely. One of the most remarkable is on page 68, where he makes out that in the year 1884 the percentage of dividends on railroads in the United States rose to five and four-tenths; whereas it was actually less than two and five-tenths, according to the figures given in Poor's Manual. And when it comes to dealing with facts, our author is as badly off as when he deals with figures. He says that in the United States there is a system commonly known as pooling or dividing the traffic receipts, which "has no exact counterpart in other countries"; that in the United Kingdom much the same results are arrived at by an arrangement as to rates and fares; and that on the continent of Europe neither system prevails to any great extent. It is simply incredible that a man could have been in Mr. Jeans's position as Secretary of the British Iron Trade Association and not know anything more about the facts. So far from neither system prevailing on the continent of Europe, both systems have been applied, as a matter of course more uniformly than in England or America, while in England competing traffic has been divided by no less high an authority than Mr. Gladstone himself; and English pooling arrangements have been the exact counterpart of those in the United States, except that they have been more steadily maintained.

Nor is our author any more trustworthy in the use which he makes of the facts which he has. In trying to determine the comparative economy of State and private management, he takes as a standard the percentage of administrative expenses to other operating expenses. Now, of course, such a percentage might be made to appear low by wastefulness in other items precisely as well as by economy in administrative ones. The comparison proves nothing. In point of fact, the question whether the percentage of administrative expenses is large or small depends almost entirely upon the extent of railways concentrated under a single management. In the majority of cases the State, where it owns part of the railroads, will have the main system and the companies the local lines. Where the case is reversed, as in France, the relation of the figures will be reversed. This is a perfectly simple and commonplace explanation of the facts on which Mr. Jeans lays so much stress.

It is a pity that the book is so untrustworthy; for if its figures and facts could be relied on, it would meet a real want. But we are bound to say that Mr. Jeans has not made use of a great many sources of information which were open to him, and that those of which he has availed himself have been carelessly used. It shows how little knowledge of railroad administration there is among economists and statisticians that the substance of this book should have been published in the Journal of the Statistical Society and in the Bulletin de l'Institut International de Statistique without meeting destructive criticism.

Mr. Kirkman is well known as a railroad man of experience and a somewhat voluminous writer on matters of railroad administration. What he says is generally good, but a little more care in putting it together would be greatly to the reader's advantage. The author is kept so busy by his practical work that he does not always find time to condense his ideas before he puts them in print. Some of the most amusing instances of carelessness occur in the index, from which we select a few headings by way of illustration: *Cause* of Envy; *Effect* of Climate on Coal—of Envy—of Saving; *Facilities*, lack of; *Fruit* of Riches; *How* to Acquire Wealth. In one sense these are trifles, but they indicate slovenly preparation which seriously detracts from the merit of the book.

BRITISH POWER IN INDIA.

The Rise of the British Power in the East. By the late Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone. Edited by Sir Edward Colebrooke, Bart. London: Murray. 1887.

THE addition of this portly volume to the vast, dreary, and increasing mountain of Anglo-Indian literature is wholly without excuse. The Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone was an able and accomplished member of the Indian Civil Service, who, after a distinguished official career, devoted the evening of his days to literary pursuits. Among other books, he projected a history of India from the earliest times to his own day, but he published during his own lifetime only those portions of it which dealt with the Hindu and Mohammedan periods. The present volume, which is concerned with the rise of British power in the East and the earlier exploits of Clive, has been published from manuscripts he left behind him. Had it appeared at the time it was written,

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as an episode in a larger and continuous history, it would have needed no apology. Moreover, at that time the subject still retained something of novelty and freshness. But it so happens that, since Mr. Elphinstone's death, the story of the adventures, battles, and victories of Clive and his immediate successors has been told and retold several times over; and these pages do not add a single fact to those which Macaulay's well-known essay has made familiar to all readers.

In another way the treatment of the subject is grievously defective. Historians of British India have invariably fastened upon the campaigns —upon the records of battles and sieges—and have recounted these at tedious length, as if in them were comprised all that was of importance in the substitution of British rule for the sway of the native princes of India. Actually, in their consequences to the country and the people, these were of small significance compared with another series of facts which they have almost or wholly ignored. There was a man of that time who, though he had never been in India, apprehended the vital significance of this other series with the insight of genius; and in the great Indian speeches of Edmund Burke, and in his celebrated "Ninth Report," the student of history will learn more of the inner character of that marvellous revolution which conferred the sovereignty of the East upon a British trading corporation than in all the (so called) histories of that occurrence. To this hour the frightful poverty of the Indian agricultural classes is the difficulty which has baffled all the skill, thought, and ingenuity of Indian administrators. In spite of roads, railways, and canals, in spite of assessments which, *on paper*, can be demonstrated to be moderation itself, the Indian agriculturist insists upon remaining a wretched, unclothed, insufficiently nourished, and hopelessly indebted creature. His life is a life of toil, with nothing brighter than fever, cholera, or famine as its final goal. And yet it can be shown, beyond all reasonable question, that before the rising of British rule the state of this same ryot, notwithstanding the seemingly incessant disorder of the country, was sufficiently prosperous. Now, it was during the rise of British power in the East that the seeds of this dire poverty were sown. They were not perceived until they had, so to speak, struck vigorous root in the soil; and as with certain noxious grasses, well known to the Indian agriculturists, which spring up in the standing crops, spread abroad with appalling rapidity, and defy all efforts at eradication, so has it been with the after consequences of these early errors. Their true nature never having been understood—not being understood to this day—they have positively flourished upon the futile attempts to remove them out of the land. In his "Ninth Report" and his Indian speeches, Burke has pointed out the cause, in the unnatural combination, namely, of sovereignty and commerce in the mercantile rulers of India. The East India Company were driven by the exigencies of their position to treat their Indian Empire just as an Irish absentee landlord of the old time, and with extravagant inclinations, treated the tenants on his estates. Every farthing of surplus revenue was swept out of the country, year after year, in order to win the good-will of Ministers and provide dividends for the proprietors of East India stock. Under such a system, a lavish scale of expenditure in India itself presented itself to Anglo-Indian officials in the light of a virtue. There was, in fact, a perpetual struggle going on between the authorities in Calcutta and the Directors in Leadenhall Street as to the partition of the Indian revenues between them; and Burke has shown, with astonishing power and insight, the ruin wrought upon the trade, the manufactures, and the agriculture of India by this unnatural strife—a ruin from which the people have never recovered.

Of all these things Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone would appear to have been ignorant. He is at least altogether silent respecting them. His history is a mere "drum-and-trumpet" affair, made up of "alarums," "skirmishes," and the like incidents. The Indian peninsula is, literally, the "theatre of war," and nothing besides. There might have been no inhabitants in it for all that we are permitted to hear about them. We do not mean to say that Mr. Elphinstone is, in this respect, a worse sinner than other of his countrymen who have written upon the same subject. All alike have deliberately turned aside from the path of inquiry which Burke was the first to open out. But the fact that Mr. Elphinstone had only walked in the old well-worn rut ought, we think, to have convinced his editor that the publication of the present volume was a waste of time and trouble.

Mr. Elphinstone, however, though he has nothing new to tell us, relates the old story with simplicity and spirit. And the founding of the British Empire in India is a history so strange and marvellous that it will stand a great many readings. The people of India, if they are impatient under subjection to an alien rule, must acknowledge, if they are candid, that the blame rests wholly with themselves. The odds were all on their side. Their princes commanded thousands, where Clive and Lawrence and Adams commanded but their tens. The world has never witnessed acts of more splendid audacity than the manner in which unknown captains and majors hurled their three or four hundred English soldiers against armies of eight and ten thousand Orientals holding entrenched positions, heavily mounted with artillery. After his varied experience of war, the Duke of Wellington said that, in the quality of reckless daring, no troops he had ever seen were the equals of the English regiments in India; and the incidents recorded in this volume are an abundant confirmation of this judgment. Take, for example, the battle of Udha-nálá. The army of the Bengal subahdar, 60,000 strong, was protected by a line of entrenchments, beyond which was a deep wet ditch fifty or sixty feet broad; and the position was further defended by one hundred guns. Major Adams attacked this huge host at the head of 700 Englishmen and 2,000 Sepoys, and utterly defeated it. The exploits of the small French armies, in the days of their greatness, were no less astonishing; and though the losses sustained in these actions look small, yet, relatively to the numbers engaged, they were very heavy, and indicate in the clearest way the indomitable pluck and endurance of the European soldiers. Curious, too, is it to contrast the behavior of the great Frenchmen of those early times, Dupleix and Bussy, with their English rivals, Clive and Hastings.

In these, its early days, the English East India Company had no higher ambition than to carry on a profitable trade with India. It dreamed not of conquest or empire. Its existence was, in truth, a precarious one. Its monopoly was an object of jealousy to the merchants of Great Britain, and it was obliged to be constantly upon its guard against the assaults of formidable rivals. Under these circumstances, its chief care was to efface itself as much as possible, to undertake no action of a kind to excite public attention and comment. The French East India Company, on the contrary, was the "spoiled darling" of the French monarchy. The Government freely supplied it with subsidies. Its leading officials were nominated by the State, and French Ministers took an active part in determining, not its commercial proceedings, but its political conduct towards the native princes. To Dupleix belongs the credit of having been the first to discover how, by means of a small body of European troops, skilfully employed, a French empire might be carved out of the crumbling ruins of the great Delhi monarchy. All his alliances with the native sovereigns were regulated so as to aid in the realizing of this idea. In the end, however, as Mr. Elphinstone points out, the intervention of the State at home, which seemed at first to give to the French so great a superiority over their English rivals, proved the cause of their ruin. It seemed to give them power, but, by restricting their initiative, and interfering at every step with their independence of action, it robbed them of much more than it gave. Clive could never have accomplished his great achievements had he been the servant of an English Minister dictating directions to him from his office in London. Next to his own audacity and fearlessness, he owed his success to the fact of his independence; but, unlike the French, his policy was at no time dictated by a prevision of empire, but only by the present necessities of the situation. And this difference in their outlook would seem to have impressed itself upon their manners in a remarkable way. Mr. Elphinstone quotes the following from the French translator of the 'Seir ul Mutakherin,' in which the difference is well described:

"If any one had seen M. de Bussy and Col. Clive or Mr. Hastings in the height of their power and influence, he may have taken from these two or three individuals a pretty good idea of the different geniuses of the French and English nations. M. de Bussy always wore embroidered clothes or brocade, with an embroidered hat, and, on days of ceremony, embroidered shoes of black velvet. He was seen in an immense tent, full sufficient for 600 men, of about thirty feet in elevation; at one end of this tent he sat on an armchair, embroidered with his King's arms, placed upon an elevation, which last was covered by a crimson carpet of embroidered velvet. At his right and left, but upon back chairs only, sat a dozen of his officers. Over against him his French guard on horseback, and behind these his Turkish guards. His table, always in plate, was served with three, often with four, services. To this French magnificence he added all the parade and pageant of Hindustani manners. A numerous set of tents, always on an elephant himself, as were all his officers, he was preceded by heralds on horseback and by a set of musicians singing his feats of chivalry, with always two head heralds reciting his eulogium. Col. Clive always wore his regimentals in the field, was always on horseback, and never rode in a palanquin; he had a plentiful table, but noways delicate, and never more than two services. He used to march mostly at the head of the column with his aides-de-camp, or was hunting to the right and left. He never wore silks but in town. Gov. Hastings always wore a plain coat of English broadcloth, and never anything like lace or embroidery. His whole retinue a dozen of horseguards; his throne a plain chair of mahogany with plenty of such thrones in the hall; his table sometimes neglected; his diet sparing and always abstemious; his address and deportment very distant from pride and still more so from familiarity."

Life and Services of Gen. John A. Logan, as Soldier and Statesman. By George Francis Dawson, ex-Librarian of United States Senate. Belford, Clarke & Co. 1887. Pp. 580.

THIS book has all the marks of a "campaign life," prepared for use in an election and afterwards adapted to publication as a *post-mortem* biography. It has the same indiscriminate praise of the subject, the superlative estimate of all he did, the assumption that at every stage of his career he was the chief figure of his time, the belittling or depreciation of everybody who was in contact with him, the scrap-book collection of laudatory newspaper notices of him, the usual excerpts from his "great speeches." It would seem to be written by a political henchman, with all the henchman's blind adoration of the man to whose fortunes he has attached himself, and to whom he looks for place and promotion. It is a

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pity that the story of Logan's life should be told in this way; for there was enough in it of the romantic and the picturesque to have made a permanently pleasing book, if the material were used by a competent literary hand, and by a writer not dominated by the habits and influences of personal and political subordination. The book would not have been so big a one, but it would have had a longer life.

Logan was a born politician of a certain type. From his nature he was nothing if not partisan. He had a boiling energy which prompted him to be in the thickest of every fray, and a certain sounding fluency that captivated the average crowd. As things have gone in American politics, this passes for political leadership, but it is a purely physical leadership. Every crowd has its leader in this sense, whether it be a respectable mass meeting or an Anarchist mob. There is nothing of intellectual leadership in it. It means simply the infusing of working or voting zeal into a mass of people, in behalf of plans, ideas, or purposes that have been thought out by somebody else, somewhere else. Logan had nothing to do with originating. Whether he was following Douglas before the war in the rash attempt to fasten slavery upon Kansas under the absurd disguise of "squatter sovereignty," or following Lincoln in the general abolition of slavery after the war began, he was the same dashing, vigorous, reckless advocate of the views and purposes which he had accepted from the more intellectual men who were for the nonce his leaders. He was sincere in his convictions, for with such a temperament convictions are as much a matter of feeling as of reason. If there was any inconsistency in his course, he was not aware of it, and was never troubled with doubts. His vanity was great and made him see all minor matters in their relation to his own personality. This kept him in a condition of chronic chafing with others which he mistook for independence; yet his instinctive regard for organization was such that he could accept a disappointment, though not with a good grace, and, saving his right to grumble, would not cease to work because he had been defeated or thwarted.

The traits thus sketched are those of a man essentially a subordinate, though of a nature strong enough to push him to the most important positions of the second class. His early education was incomplete, and, once entered upon active life, he had no time to repair its deficiencies. This put him at a disadvantage in the Senate, as it would have done at the bar had he continued in active practice; before the popular gatherings on his "stamping ground" of southern Illinois he was in his element, and there was scarce any limit to his popularity there.

His military career was one in which his best powers found their fittest field, and his weaknesses were least obvious. He was never burdened with the responsibility of independent command, and as a subordinate, putting into execution the plans and orders of his commander, he was in many respects a model officer. His courage was brilliant, and he gloried in the stimulus of a ride down his lines under the hottest fire. His enthusiasm was demonstrative and contagious, so that his troops were roused to a sympathy with his own daring that made them again and again perform prodigies of valor. He cultivated the peculiarities of bearing and of costume which gave him individuality with his soldiers. He took pride in the cognomen of "Black Jack," and would not cut the long black hair and drooping moustache which made his swarthy figure everywhere noticeable. In command of a regiment, a brigade, a division, and a corps, he had a continuous and brilliant success, though always more or less insubordinate, and wilful to an extent that diminished the satisfaction of his superiors in their relations to him. He was often despotic and unreasonable with his immediate subordinates, though kind and considerate with those so near his person as to be dependent upon him.

In both his political and military life, the character is plainly identical; but the warlike experience was one in which, in his position, the duty before him was an almost purely executive one, in which courage, dash, and energy counted for so much as to make success certain. His was the physical much more than the intellectual part of war, and in every campaign he was under men of self-reliant will and of broader intellect than his own. He was probably at his best in the command of a division, where his person could be seen by all his men at once and his example have its full effect. In the higher commands, the influence and control become more intellectual, and the exhibition of personal daring and dash would be at the sacrifice of the larger grasp of the forces which are wielded. Had he remained in command of the Army of the Tennessee after McPherson's death, there is no reasonable doubt that he would have performed his duties creditably under the eye of Sherman. His ambition would have been gratified; but with such a man as Blair for his subordinate, whose intellect was of a much higher type, his career would not have been so desirable as in command of the Fifteenth Corps, where the devotion to him was enthusiastic and where no one questioned his military preeminence.

In both phases of his life he lacked the element of content. The restless desire for something different from that which he had, prevented the full enjoyment even of his own successes; and perhaps the only moments of unalloyed pleasure were when his soldiers cheered a daring exploit, or a vast popular audience made the welkin ring at one of his happy hits or extravagant figures. It is right to add that his patriotism was genuine and his ambition a frank and honest one. His last great public grief was at the attacks of party friends upon conduct of his which was dictated by generosity to a political opponent, and he felt it the more keenly because he was conscious that his partisanship had usually gone beyond that of his party critics. No one suspected him of corruption in pecuniary matters, and he had the distinction (if, with shame, we must confess it to be a distinction in American politics) of refraining from using the means of amassing wealth which are often pressed upon public men.

The First Nine Years of the Bank of England. An Enquiry into a Weekly Record of the Price of Bank Stock from August 17, 1694, to September 17, 1703. By James E. Thorold Rogers. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THIS essay is a digression from Prof. Rogers's 'History of Agriculture and Prices in England.' While examining material preparatory to the fifth and sixth volumes of the larger work, the author became impressed with the special importance of a few records, seldom consulted, which have preserved the early history of the Bank of England. One of these was a weekly newspaper published by John Houghton, an apothecary, from August 17, 1694, to September 17, 1703. Houghton was a Fellow of the Royal Society and a friend of the astronomer Halley. His newspaper made its appearance regularly during the nine years and was much liked by his contemporaries. Its publication was suspended, not, as newspapers are commonly discontinued, by the chills of adversity, but for the contrary reason. The last number contained a statement that the editor's business had grown to such an extent that he could no longer find time to prepare the copy for the printers. One complete file of Houghton's paper exists in the Bodleian Library. Houghton published the weekly price-lists of the shares of the Bank of England, of the two East India Companies, the Hudson's Bay Company, and the African Company; also the rate of exchange on Amsterdam and the prices of corn and other staple articles in the principal market towns. Another original source of material, and an extremely valuable one, is Luttrell's Diary, first used by Macaulay and printed at his instance by the Oxford University Press. Prof. Rogers bears testimony to the "exceeding fairness and cautious accuracy" of Macaulay. "The picturesque character of Macaulay's style," he says, "has perhaps induced some dull persons to think that he strove after mere effect, but that, after all, his realities are unreal. I can only say that I have found him scrupulously just."

The charter of the Bank of England was granted by Parliament July 24, 1694, with the prime object of obtaining a war loan of £1,200,000. The privileges granted to the Bank were upon the condition that this sum should be paid into the Exchequer within a fixed time. The right to issue notes was one of the compensations for the loan. The powers bestowed upon the Bank were analogous to those exercised by the goldsmiths, the private bankers of the period. The goldsmiths received deposits and issued their own bills for them. These bills entered into trade and passed as the equivalent of money until returned for redemption. They were not simple storage receipts, like the early bills of the banks of Venice, Genoa, and Amsterdam, but were the I O U's of the goldsmiths. It was understood that the depositors' money would be loaned and that the goldsmith-banker would keep a sufficient cash reserve to meet any probable demand for the redemption of his bills. The early banks of the Continent, on the other hand, held the identical money they received from their customers, issuing no more notes than the equivalent of the coin on deposit. They derived their profit from the premium their notes bore over the heterogeneous coins in circulation, and from certain exclusive privileges that they enjoyed in the discount of bills of exchange. There was a panic and a run on the Bank of Amsterdam in 1672. It was then found that the practice of the Bank was in strict accord with the theory—the identical pieces, and all of them, being in the vaults corresponding to the outstanding bills. The Bank of England followed the course of the London goldsmiths. "It purported to give in its bills the equivalent of what it had received, but it never pretended to take the deposit for any other purpose than trading with it." The likeness of our national banking system can be seen in the birth of the Bank of England. The Bank's capital was loaned to the Government "to the last shilling," and it received in return interest on the loan and also the right to issue circulating notes on condition of redeeming them on demand.

The Bank had many enemies from the very start. The goldsmiths were violently opposed to it on business grounds: it interfered with their profits. The Tories were opposed to it on political grounds. The landowners were opposed to it on social and religious grounds, since it represented the rising power of commerce in the State and of dissent in religion. Its most formidable antagonist was Chamberlain's Land Bank, a ridiculous scheme, much favored by the aristocracy. Chamberlain was an accoucheur with a penchant for grand finance. He conceived the idea of establishing a bank with money borrowed by mortgages on land, lending the money to the Government and issuing notes to be loaned at three and a half per cent. to the mortgagors. The mortgagors were to receive the stock of the Bank and derive profits from the dividends paid by the

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Government equal to the interest due on the mortgages, and obtain loans from the Bank when needed by them at one-half the customary rate of interest. Under such a scheme, it would be practicable for a landowner to borrow by mortgage to-day, invest the proceeds in Bank stock to-morrow, and borrow money from the Bank the next day to pay off the mortgage, retiring with a net income of three and a half per cent. on the amount juggled with. There was no restriction to prevent the same person from performing the feat a second time. This ludicrous project of the "man midwife," as Luttrell calls him, gained so much favor among the landed gentry that it passed both houses of Parliament, and was favored by King William so far that books of subscription were opened on the 9th of June, 1696, under the charge of commissioners appointed by the Crown. But subscriptions did not come in. The Land Bank collapsed in embryo. "The King and his advisers were embarrassed; the landed interest was disappointed, enraged, and probably thought that what they called 'crying down the Land Bank' was some financial witchcraft or evil eye on the part of the moneyed men, which cheated them of their reasonable hopes."

The episode of the Land Bank was the first crisis of the Bank of England. Chamberlain's scheme was the rallying-point of all the opposition to the Bank. So great a hubbub was raised by it that the shares of the Bank declined from 107 to 83. Other crises, and more trying ones, ensued—these connected with the war in the Low Countries. The first deputy governor of the Bank, Godfrey, was killed in the trenches at Namur, whither he and two other directors had gone to provide funds for paying the army. We get a glimpse of the method of transferring funds from one country to another for military use at that time by reading that the governor, deputy governor, and one director of the Bank went over to Antwerp and set up a mint to coin money to pay the army; but as the mint could not work fast enough, they (the Bank directors) borrowed £100,000 from the Bank of Amsterdam for the purpose. The capture of Namur, which took place soon afterwards, was ascribed to the good feeling produced by the punctual payment of the troops.

The state of the coinage at this time was so deplorable, by reason of wearing, sweating, and clipping, that exchange between London and Amsterdam in 1695 was as much as thirty-eight per cent. against the former. "In this crisis," says Prof. Rogers, "the Bank ran its greatest perils, did some of its best services, and established the confidence which has made it so famous." The restoration of the coinage cost the Treasury upwards of $2,700,000—a very large sum in those trying times, being nearly equivalent to a year and a half's ordinary revenue, and as hard to be borne, the author thinks, as a hundred millions at the present time. But its value to the country, in the way of establishing the public credit and imparting confidence to every department of trade and industry, was beyond computation. The name of Montague is rendered illustrious by this achievement.

The history of the Bank during the nine years is so closely connected with the history of the Government that our author deals necessarily with the political contentions of the time, and also with military operations on the Continent. These relations give to the volume a spice of interest usually lacking in financial treatises. There is scant room for criticism to one who has not access to the rare sources consulted by the author. We can only say that in this, as in all his work in the field of political economy, Prof. Rogers employs the best methods of study and the soundest rules of interpretation.

Obiter Dicta. Second Series. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887.

THERE is in this volume just that blending of a just literary taste with an unobtrusive refined humor which makes a charming book. Milton, Johnson, and Burke are simply hopeless material for fresh essays, but by dint of keeping his individuality alert and responsive, and holding close by the perennial genuineness of these great lives, the author has made something new of them, something that causes us to forget they are classics, awakens our interest, and stirs us to the point of avidity to learn what he has to say in his lighthearted and truthful affection for the old favorites. He sums up Pope when he says he should as soon think of asking whether a centipede has legs or a wasp a sting as whether he was or was not a poet; and in the course of his very humane handling of that distorted body of sensibilities and rancors which was Pope, he pleads his very best defence by reminding us that Arburthnot loved him; there must have been something amiable in him, even if it only overflowed from the good, sensible doctor. The essay upon Burke is the most pleasing to ourselves; there is an absence of weight in it which is an altogether novel quality in the subject, and there is next to nothing about his speeches. The constant gleam of humor that plays over the page helps us to remember all the while that Burke was an Irishman. Apropos of his quarrel with Hamilton, the author remarks: "Few men can afford to be angry; it is a run upon their intellectual resources that they cannot meet"; and he praises Burke's exhaustless indignation accordingly. He says well that it is a sign of Burke's stupendous greatness that when "his name is pitted against the outcome of centuries, and we say Burke and the French Revolution, we are not overwhelmed by any sense of obvious absurdity or incongruity." It is exquisite to hear a man say that "the true mode of critical approach to copies of Latin verse is by the question—How bad are they?"—to have him find Dr. Johnson every whit as interesting in his life of Sprat as of Milton or Gray, and add, "he is also much less provoking"; to have Arnold's dealing with a hapless author succinctly described as "kittenish," and to read in the opening paragraph of a paper the chance remark—"You may live like a gentleman for a twelvemonth on Hazlitt's ideas." This is the true lover of books, perhaps a trifle too refined for the general public, it must be said. "Beshrew the general public," he says himself; "what in the name of the Bodleian has the general public got to do with literature? The general public subscribes to Mudie, and has its intellectual, like its lacteal sustenance, sent round to it in carts." He turns his eyes occasionally towards this country, and quotes with delicious appositeness, in regard to Mr. Howells's views of Thackeray and Sir Walter and the rest:

"My grief lies onward and my joy behind."

He touches on the sacred precincts of "Boston life and intellect" in Emerson's day: "It does not seem to have been a very strong place. We lack performance." He even finds a fault to peck at in Dr. Holmes, and declares that his "literary perspective" is "every bit as bad" as Emerson's, which he has just told us was "very early," and cites the Doctor's remarks about the redundant syllable—"Shakspere and Milton knew how to use it effectively; Shelley employed it freely, Bryant indulged in it; Willis was fond of it," and, adds our author, "I dare say he was, but we are not fond of Willis, and cannot help regarding the citation of his poetical example as an outrage." This comes the nearest to being an "explosion" of anything in the book, and it will amuse American readers. But the volume is full of "plums" of one kind and another, is solid in literary judgment, humane and truthful to an extraordinary degree, and thoroughly readable.

When I was a Boy in China. By Yan Phou Li. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THIS little book of about one hundred pages is a revelation of Chinese home life which all Americans ought to read. It is the frank story of a young man who tells the truth without reserve, with Biblical quaintness and antique simplicity. He seems to have no "purpose" or "tendency" in view, but only to inform as to the facts. Further, the style is terse, clear, straightforward, fluent, refined, and idiomatic. Mr. Yan Phou Lee is, or was, a student in Yale College, one of the number sent over a few years ago, under the auspices of Yung Wing, who has been able to remain until graduation from an American college. Belonging to the mighty tribe or family of Li (Lee), he was born on the 21st day of the second moon, in the first year of the reign of the Emperor Tung Che; which, if our calculations be correct, was April 11, 1861. His personal name, Yan Phou, means "Wealth by Imperial Favor." Like most Chinese and Japanese living abroad, he now arranges his name in accordance with the western method. In Chinese civilization, "the individual withers," and the clan is "more and more"; consequently, the family name comes first. With us, initials are vastly important, and family and locality less so.

While written originally for young people, and therefore lively and readable, Mr. Li's papers make solid and enriching reading for seniors. His twelve chapters would be very widening to the mental horizon of one fed wholly either on missionary reports or Sand-Lot eloquence. "Infancy," "The House and Household," "Chinese Cookery," "Games and Pastimes," "Girls of My Acquaintance," "Schools and School Life," "Religions," "Chinese Holidays," "Stories and Story Tellers," "How I Went to Shanghai," "How I Prepared for America," "First Experiences in America," are the suggestive titles of the chapters. Among those recounted in the last chapter are a mid-continent train robbery by masked road-agents, and a hug and kiss by an American lady, both being equally amazing to the lad.

Greek Lessons. Prepared to accompany the Grammar of Hadley and Allen. By Robert P. Keep. D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

DR. KEEP is well known to American schoolmasters by his elaborate school edition of the Iliad i-vi, and his useful translation of Autenrieth's Homeric Dictionary. His name is a sufficient guarantee for the accuracy and thoroughness of the scholarship of the present volume. It is strictly a companion for Hadley and Allen, as it professes to be, and follows closely the grammar arrangement in its topics. These are illustrated by numerous exercises and explanations; but constant reference to the grammar is made from the beginning, and the language of the grammar rules is retained as exactly as the connection will allow. From different points of view, we should say the book attempts either too much or too little. It should have been either a complete skeleton, in its Accidence at least, of the grammar, or it should have been confined to exercises and explanations only, with references to the parent work for formal statements of principles. As it is, it suffers in directness and perspicuity from its divided aim, and, worst of all, seems likely to prove very inflexible in use.

The Vocabulary at the end of the book is meagre. The Greek-English part should contain either full statements of peculiarities of inflection in the words, or references to the grammar

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for them. Space could readily be found for this by omitting the rather aimless "Classified Vocabulary" in the middle of the book. An attempt is made to indicate the quantity of the doubtful vowels; but since it is not carried out consistently, it seems more likely to confuse than to help beginners, besides marring the appearance of the page. The *iota subscriptum* given to σώζω looks like an affectation, while that of θνήσκω is really puzzling. We noticed a circumflexed καί on page 146; but generally the book is clearly and handsomely printed, and free from misprints. The stitching is as bad as that of all American school-books seems to be. Nothing short of "breaking the book's back" will make it lie open at a given page. When a book is designed, as this one is, to be used simultaneously with another, this stiffness of back becomes a serious annoyance. The duty of the maker of school-books does not end with the last "revise."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Forging the Fetters, and Other Stories. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Baker, T. Manual of Counterpoint. G. Schirmer.
Barrows, S. J. and I. C. The Shaybacks in Camp: Ten Summers under Canvas. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bates, Arlo. A Lady's Love. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Bok, E. W. Beecher Memorial: Contemporaneous Tributes to the Memory of H. W. Beecher. Brooklyn.
Brotherton, Alice W. The Sailing of King Olaf, and Other Poems. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Cleland, J. Scala Naturæ, and Other Poems. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Colvin, S. Keats. Harper & Brothers. 75 cents.
Cotte, A. M. Contes tirés de Molière. No. 1. L'Avare. Wm. R. Jenkins. 20 cents.
Cunningham, H. S. The Cœruleans. A Vacation Idyll. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Daudet, A. Which? Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.25.
Davis, S. M. H. Norway Nights and Russian Days. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Dawson, Sir J. W. The Story of the Earth and Man. New ed. Harper & Brothers.
Dexter, Prof. F. B. Sketch of the History of Yale University. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Dillwyn, E. A. Jill and Jack: A Novel. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Dodgson, W. A Choice of Change: A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Emory, A. M. Told at Tuxedo. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Genung, J. F. The Study of Rhetoric. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Bar Harbor Days. Harper & Brothers.
Hill, G. B. Boswell's Life of Johnson: including Boswell's Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides, and Johnson's Diary of a Journey into North Wales. 6 vols. Macmillan & Co. $16.
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